

DE BOW'S REVIEW.

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SOUTHERN THOUGHT AGAIN.

WHEN a public opinion is formed on a state of existing facts, and of anticipated results, and an entire change of facts and anticipations takes place, public opinion itself must also change.

Fifty years ago all christendom believed that if the negroes were emancipated, they would become more moral, intelligent, and industrious. The experiment of emancipation has been tried in every form, and on the large as well as the small scale.

Whether in South America or the West Indies, in our Southern or Northern States, in Liberia or Sierra Leone, the free negro is an idler and a nuisance. Besides, his emancipation has so diminished Southern tropical products, that the poor laboring whites cannot afford to purchase the common necessities of life. Moreover, to obviate this great evil, we see France and England reviving the slave-trade, under new forms, and Cuba actively engaged in it, under its old form, rendered far more cruel, however, by the abortive attempts to suppress it.

Now, we say that, with the experience of the last fifty years, it is impossible for public opinion, in any part of christendom, to remain on the subject of negro slavery, what it was fifty years ago. Mistaken philanthropy has had full sway, and its entire failure must give rise to new doctrines on this subject.

These doctrines begin to be openly preached, and practiced on, too. The South leads opinion; she virtually proposes a renewal of the old slave trade. But the North and Europe are ahead of her in practice, for they are carrying on the trade, whilst she is only discussing its propriety. Yet, even

in the British Parliament, regret is expressed for the great blunder of negro emancipation; and some speakers went on to palliate, if not to justify, the old slave-trade. One of them saying in debate, that only five per cent. of the negroes died on the middle passage, whilst ten per cent. of English troops sent to India perished on their way.

The latest accounts from Marautius show that she is flourishing. Because near two hundred thousand Asiatic slaves, or coolies, have been introduced into that single little colony within a few years past.

Abolitionism is dying out, because it is deprived of its old arguments and golden expectations, because it has done no good, and stands convicted before the world of infinite mischief.

The extreme pro-slavery men are the last to discover this state of facts; because a Northern sectional party is on the increase, they think abolition is increasing. But the origin and growth of that party has been all owing to the advance of pro-slavery doctrines at the South, and the consequent, seeming, aggressions of the South. At the time of the ordinance of 1789, the South seemed willing to give up all share in the territories. Under the Missouri Compromise she claimed more; and now she claims equal right in all the territories with the North, and she is successfully maintaining her claim. She leads public opinion everywhere, because she is in advance of that new counter-current of opinion, that has set in everywhere, about slavery. Soon the Democratic party will be in a majority again at the North. The South will take some other advance step on the subject of slavery, and then a new Northern party will be formed to resist Southern aggression. But nature is sure in the long run to conquer, and nature is on the side of the South. Negro slavery is as indispensable to the North as to us. They begin to see it, and to feel it, too. The introduction of more negroes, and the extension of slave territory, are new doctrines with us. Give the North a little time, and she will eagerly adopt them. We are her slave colonies, and she will command the commerce of the world. In the conduct of France and England about coolies and apprentices, we have a foretaste of what the North will do. Those nations need slave colonies, and if Northern fanatics are tired of union with the South, France or England will be ready to unite with us on favorable terms.

The world sadly needs works on the general subject of slavery—on slavery in the abstract—a history and philosophy of the institution.

Though it has been through all time the most common condition of mankind, little is to be found in the literature of the

world about it, except a few pages of Aristotle and our own crude suggestions.

The attempts to defend negro slavery as exceptional, have been written with signal ability by the ablest men in the South. But it is vain to preach against the prejudices of mankind, especially where those prejudices have some foundation in truth. Negro slavery gave rise to abolition, (which never existed before,) because, in its inception, it was attended with much that was odious and cruel, and continues so to be attended in Cuba and Brazil. There, slaves are still worked to death, and it requires large annual importations to keep up the supply.

The strongest argument against slavery, and all the prejudice against it, arise from the too great inferiority of race, which begets cruel and negligent treatment in the masters, who naturally feel little sympathy for ignorant, brutal savages. Inferiority of race is quite as good an argument against negro slavery as in its favor.

We, of the South, have most successfully shown that, as the negro advances in civilization, the master becomes attached to him; and that, eventually, this attachment secures to him kind treatment and an abundant supply of the necessities of life. But the whole history of the institution shows, that, in giving up slavery in the abstract, we take the weakest position of defence that we could possibly select. We admit it to be wrong, and then attempt to defend it in that peculiar form which has always been most odious to mankind.

We set out to write something of a rambling essay, and, indeed, the subject of Southern Thought is so large and suggestive, that it is difficult to write otherwise.

The first great Southern thought will be to refute the political economy of the "let alone" Free Trade School, and adopt some more social, protective, and humanitarian, in its stead. We make no war on political economy in its large and extended sense, for we indulge in disquisitions ourselves on national and social wealth, and what will best promote social and national well-being; but only on that Adam Smith School, who encourage unlimited competition, beget a war of the wits, and propose to govern mankind by "letting them alone, and encouraging the strong, skillful, and rich, to oppress the weak and ignorant." The science of political economy, strictly understood, has but one principle, or at least one distinctive principle. This is variously expressed by the terms, "Pas trop gouverner," "Every man for himself," "Laissez-faire," "Demand will regulate supply," &c. It is this narrow and selfish philosophy which the South must refute; and, yet, which it is teaching in all its higher schools. It leads directly

to the "No Government" doctrines of the abolitionists and socialists, and only involves slavery, in one common ruin, with all the other institutions of society.

Nothing is so directly adverse to slavery as a philosophy, which teaches that society succeeds best, when all are let alone to make their own way in the world. In truth, "Political Economy is the philosophy of universal liberty," and the outgrowth of that competitive society where the few wallow in luxury, and the unprotected masses, without masters to provide for them, are left to the grinding, unfeeling oppression of skill and capital, which starve them by the million. We must teach that slavery is necessary in all societies, as well to protect, as to govern the weak, poor, and ignorant. This is the opposite doctrine to that of the political economists.

Again: We should show that slave society, which is a series of subordinations, is consistent with christian morality—for fathers, masters, husbands, wives, children, and slaves, not being equals, rivals, competitors, and antagonists, best promote each others selfish interests when they do most for those above or beneath them. Within the precincts of the family, including slaves, the golden rule is a practical and wise guide of conduct. But in free society, where selfishness, rivalry, and competition are necessary to success, and almost to existence, this rule cannot be adopted in practice. It would reverse the whole action of such society, and make men martyrs to their virtues.

Here we may pause awhile, and consider that new system of ethical philosophy and of moral duties which slavery naturally suggests and gives rise to. Outside the Bible, the christian world has now no moral philosophy, except that selfish system, which teaches that each individual most promotes the good of others, and of the whole of society, by a continuous struggle for his own selfish good, by making good bargains, and by giving as little of his own labor as possible for as much as he can obtain of other peoples.

The scale of moral merit is nicely graduated, and he is universally considered most meritorious, who works least and gets best paid. The difference between honesty and dishonesty being, that the latter takes short cuts, whilst the former gets greater advantages, appropriates more of other people's labor, by deliberately bleeding all with whom it deals a little, than dishonesty does by grabbing at too much at once.

Lawyers, merchants, artists, mechanics, and professional and skillful men, of all kinds, are considered more honorable and meritorious than common laborers, because they work but little, and exchange a little of their light labor for the results of a great deal of common labor. All merit, in free

society, consists in getting the advantage in dealing: all demerit and disgrace, in laboring more for others than they labor for you. This system is called by the French philosophers "exploitation," which means taking honest advantages. In the general, no other moral rule of conduct is practicable in free society, because separation of interests and competition arm men against each other, and keep up a continual social war of the wits. It is true, the doctrines of the Bible are as extensively known as those of the political economists, and those doctrines touch and mollify the hearts of men, and neutralize in some degree the poison of the selfish system.

We, of the South, can build up an ethical code, founded on the morality of the Bible, because human interests with us do not generally clash, but coincide. Without the family circle it is true competition and clashing interests exist, but slavery leaves few without the family, and the little competition that is left is among the rich and skillful, and serves to keep society progressive. It is enough that slavery will relieve the common laborers of the evils of competition, and the exactions of skill and capital.

We have thus attempted to show that Southern thought must build up an entire new system of ethical philosophy. The South must also originate a new political science, whose leading and distinctive principle will be, "the world is too little governed." Where government restraint and control and protection are most needed, modern politicians propose to have, and in practice have, no government. They express a holy horror of sumptuary laws, of Roman censors, of Jewish and Catholic Priests, and of all interference with the family. Ignorant fathers must riot in unrestrained despotism. They have "a right divine to govern wrong," and maltreat wives and children as much as they please. Modern, so called liberty, robs three-fourths of mankind, wives and children, of all rights, and subjects them to the despotism of brutal and ignorant fathers and husbands. The most important part of government is that which superintends and controls the action of the family, for society is composed of families; and if the parts be rotten, the whole cannot be sound. Slavery secures intelligent rulers, interested in the well-being of its subjects, and they never permit the maltreatment by slaves of their wives and children. Every mail teems with accounts of wife murders at the North, and yet we have never heard or read of a negro murdering his wife at the South. Nothing but the strong arm and inquisitorial superintendence of a master, can restrain their wife murderers; they need "more of government."

Southern thought will teach that protection and slavery must go hand in hand, for we cannot efficiently protect those

whose conduct we cannot control. (Hence, the powers and obligations of husbands and fathers.) We can never be sure that our charities will not be misapplied, unless we can control their expenditure.

It is the duty of society to protect all its members, and it can only do so by subjecting each to that degree of government constraint or slavery, which will best advance the good of each and of the whole. Thus, ambition, or the love of power, properly directed, becomes the noblest of virtues, because power alone can enable us to be safely benevolent to the weak, poor, or criminal.

To protect the weak, we must first enslave them, and this slavery must be either political and legal, or social; the latter, including the condition of wives, apprentices, inmates of poor houses, idiots, lunatics, children, sailors, soldiers, and domestic slaves. Those latter classes cannot be governed, and also protected by mere law, and require masters of some kind, whose will and discretion shall stand as a law to them, who shall be entitled to their labor, and bound to provide for them. This social organization begets harmony and good will, instead of competition, rivalry, and war of the wits.

Slavery educates, refines, and moralizes the masses by separating them from each other, and bringing them into continual intercourse with masters of superior minds, information, and morality. The laboring class of Europe, associating with nothing above them, learn nothing but crime and immorality from each other, and are well described by Mr. Charles Dickens as "a heaving mass of poverty, ignorance, and crime." Slavery is necessary as an educational institution, and is worth ten times all the common schools of the North. Such common schools teach only uncommonly bad morals, and prepare their inmates to graduate in the penitentiary, as the statistics of crime at the North abundantly prove.

There certainly is in the human heart, under all circumstances, a love for all mankind, and a yearning desire to equalize human conditions. We are all philanthropists by force of nature, for we are social beings, tied to each other by invisible chords of sympathy. Nature, which makes us members or limbs of the being society, and affects us pleasantly or painfully, as any of those members or limbs, however distant from us, are affected, would teach us how to promote the well being of each and all, if we would but attend to her lessons. The slaveholder feels quite as sensibly the vibrations of the nervous system of humanitarian sympathy which makes society one being, as the abolitionist, the socialist, or the christian. They are all in pursuit of one object—the good of the whole—feeling that the good of each is indissolubly connected with

the good of all. By observing and studying the habitudes of the bees and the ants, of flocking birds and gregarious animals, we must become satisfied that our social habits and sympathetic feelings are involuntary, a part of our nature, and necessary to our healthful and natural existence. This induces us to reject the social contract of Locke, which presupposes a state in which each human being has a separate independent existence; and also the philosophy of Adam Smith, which grew out of Locke's theory, and goes still further by insisting that "every man for himself" is the true doctrine of government.

Now, the question arises, how are man's social wants and habitudes to be satisfied, after rejecting the philosophy which dissociates him? How is that equality of social happiness and enjoyment to be attained which we all involuntarily desire? Has not nature, which made us social and gregarious, taught us ere this our best governmental policy? Has man no instincts, no divine promptings and directions; or is he accursed of God, and been left to grope and blunder in the dark for six thousand years, whilst other social animals have understood the science and practice of government from the first?

We, of the South, assume that man has all along instinctively understood and practiced that social and political government best suited to his nature, and that domestic slavery is, in the general, a natural and necessary part of that government, and that its absence is owing to a decaying and diseased state of society, or to something exceptional in local circumstances, as in desert, or mountainous, or new countries, where competition is no evil, because capital has no mastery over labor. But how does slavery equalize human conditions, whilst it vests with seemingly unlimited and despotic power a few, and subjects the many to all the ills or evils which that power may choose capriciously to inflict?

First: There is no such thing as despotic power in the moral world, for human beings act and re-act on each other, and affect each other's course of action, just as in the physical world all bodies, by the laws of gravitation, mutually attract and control each other's motions. The difference being, that in the moral world, the smaller and weaker bodies not only neutralize the despotism of the larger, but often control and rule them. The wife, the infant, the slave, by virtue of that nervous, social sympathy, which connects us together, by means of domestic and family affection, which shield and protect the weaker members of the household, and by that singular influence which compassion and pity for the helpless and dependent exercises most especially over the conduct of the strong, the brave, and the powerful, are in the general far

more efficiently shielded from tyranny and ill treatment than they could be by the interposition of any human laws and penalties. Within the family circle it is impossible to interpose usefully many such laws and penalties; hence, Providence has abundantly supplied those checks to power which man in vain attempts to fabricate. "I am thy slave, deprives me of the power of a master!" All acknowledge and admire the truth and beauty of this sentiment, and thus tacitly admit the correctness of our theory.

But another step in the argument is necessary. This only proves that the despotic power of the master, the husband, and the father is no engine of tyranny, but usually and naturally a tie of affection, and a means of support and protection. Yet, it does not prove that the condition of the inferiors is equally desirable with that of superiors.

The labors of life devolve on inferiors, its cares on superiors. Their obligations are mutual, and each in a broad sense equally slaves, for the superior is as much bound by law, natural feeling, self-interest, and custom, to take care of, govern, and provide for inferiors or dependents, as they to labor for him. Which is the happier condition, in general, none can determine.

Faith in God, which establishes and perpetuates the two conditions, should make us bow in humble submission to his will, and with reverential respect for his wisdom, benevolence, and justice, be ready to believe that in a naturally constituted society, high and low are equally happy.

We cannot dismiss this part of our subject without giving two extracts, the one from Shakespeare, the other from Virgil, portraying, as mere philosopher can never portray, those anguishing and corroding cares that oft afflict the breasts of kings; and masters, husbands, and fathers are but kings on a small scale.

KING H.—"How many thousand of my poorest subjects
Are at this hour asleep!—Sleep, gentle sleep,
Nature's soft nurse, how have I frighted thee,
That thou no more wilt weigh my eye-lids down,
And steep my senses in forgetfulness?
Why rather, sleep, liest thou in smoky cribs,
Upon uneasy pallets stretching thee,
And hush'd with buzzing night-flies to thy slumber;
Than in the perfum'd chambers of the great,
Under the canopies of costly state,
And lull'd with sounds of sweetest melody?
O thou dull god, why liest thou with the vile,
In loathsome beds; and leav'st the kingly couch,
A watch-case, or a common 'larum bell?
Wilt thou upon the high and giddy mast
Seal up the ship-boy's eyes, and rock his brains
In cradle of the rude imperious surge;

And in the visitation of the winds,
Who take the ruffian billows by the top,
Curling their monstrous heads, and hanging them
With deaf'ning clamors in the slippery clouds,
That, with the hurly, death itself awakes!
Can'st thou, O partial sleep! give thy repose
To the wet sea-boy in an hour so rude;
And, in the calmest and most stillest night,
With all appliances and means to boot,
Deny it to a king? Then, happy low, lie down!
Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.

Second Part of KING HENRY IV., Act iii.

The passage we shall quote from, Virgil, describes a Queen in love, whose unrequited passion afflicts her with so much anguish and mortification, that she spends sleepless nights whilst all is profound peace and quiet around her. Her's are not the cares of the master for his family, or of the sovereign for his subjects; but, still, it is mental pain and anxiety, which the master and the sovereign continually feel, which follows them by day and by night, depriving them of appetite, and disturbing their rest; whilst moderate labor, under the superintendence and protection of a superior, is free from care, conduces to health, whets the appetite, and brings on profound and luxurious sleep. The anxious, wretched, sleepless Dido, well represents the frequent condition of the master, whilst the profound repose around her, is but the sleep of wife, children, and slaves, freed from care by a master, of whose sleepless vigils they are all unconscious. At all events, the most fastidious reader will not object to an occasional oasis of poetry, 'mid the dreary waste of philosophical disquisition. In collating the passages which we have selected, one is at a loss which most to admire, the turbid passion of the English Bard, or the delicate tracery of the Latin Poet. Each is perfect in its kind, and perfectly adapted to the subject of the story:

Sublime!

"Nox erat, et placidum carpebant fessa soporem
Corpora per terras, sylvæque et sæva quierant
Æquora: cum medio volvuntur sidera lapsu:
Cum tacet omnis æger, pæcudes, pictæq; volucres,
Quæq; lacus latè liquidos, quæq; aspera dumis
Rura tenent, somno positæ sub nocte silenti
Lenibant curas, et corda oblita laborum.
At non infelix animi Phœnissæ; neque unquam
Solvitur in somnos, oculisve aut pectore noctem
Accipit."—ÆNEID, Lib. iv.

The cares of life are a full offset to the labors of life, and thus, and thus only, may human conditions be equalized.

But the free laborer has nightly care superadded to incessant daily toil, whilst his employer is exempted as well from the labor of life, as from most of its cares. The former is a slave, without the rights of a slave; the latter, a master, without the

obligations of a master. What equality of condition can there be in free society?

Socially, slavery is quite as promotive of human happiness as it is morally and politically. "It is not good for man to be alone." His nature is social, and most of his happiness and enjoyment is reflected, and proceeds from his sympathy with the pleasures of others. Too small a family circle is injurious to happiness, as well because it circumscribes the pleasures of association, and prevents much interchange of ideas, as because it brings us nearer to that state of helplessness to which the solitary man is subjected. We cannot conceive of much pleasure or enjoyment in the life of a man and wife, with five or six infant children, living to themselves and cultivating their own lands. The sickness of either parent would render the situation of the whole family desperate. The healthy parent could not nurse the sick one, attend to the children, and to all domestic concerns, and also cultivate the land. The apprehension of this common event would suffice to mar enjoyment. But such a family, as we have described, would have scarcely any sources of social enjoyment at any time, for the constant drudgery of labor would confine them at home, and deprive them of the opportunity to acquire subjects for conversation, or ideas for interchange. Such a life is solitary and monotonous, begets cruel and despotic exercise of power on the part of the husband, who is not brought in contact with public opinion, negligence and slovenliness in the wife, and ignorance with the children. The boasted independence of such a life will not bear examination. The wife and six children are the slaves often of a cruel, capricious husband, who treats them badly, and provides for them insufficiently.

All this was obviated by the admirable slave institutions of the Romans, and other nations of antiquity. Society was divided into circles sufficiently large to insure against want, and to secure social enjoyment and intellectual improvement. These circles revolved around a common central head, thus securing order, concert and coöperation, and promoting kind and sympathetic feelings, instead of jealousy, rivalry, and competition. The Roman patrician had hundreds of followers, or clients, bound by hereditary ties to his house. For six hundred years, it is said, there never occurred an instance of faithlessness to the tie of patron and client. The nobleman never failed to protect, and the client never proved recreant to his duties when his patron needed his services. Next in the circle came the freedmen, who, although liberated from slavery, rarely forgot their allegiance to their late master—for they still needed his powerful protection. Lastly, were the slaves, who performed all common labor, but were relieved

from the cares of life, and from the perils and privations of war. We can see in such society all the elements of social order, and of social happiness, and adequate *insurance* against casualties, sickness, injustice from without, and from hunger, nakedness, and poverty. Insurance is the business of government. Insurance is the object of society, and necessitates society. Modern free society neglects it, and foolishly says "the world is too much governed," thus forcing mankind to supply the deficiency of government, by thousands of forms of insurance, such as the Odd-Fellows, the Masons, the Sons of Temperance, Rappites, Mormons, Shakers, and Socialists of every hue; besides, the regular insurance companies, from fire and other casualties. Ancient slave society insured all its members, and so, in a great degree, does modern slave society—for master, mistress, and slaves, will never be all sick, or die at once, so that the weak and infirm are always secure of sufficient provision and attention.

Economically, slavery is necessary to bring about association of labor and division of expenses. Labor becomes far more efficient when many are associated together, and the expenses of living are greatly diminished when many families are united under a common government. The socialists are all aiming to attain these ends by an unnatural association, let them adopt the natural one, slavery, and they would show themselves wise and useful men.

We will cite a single example to illustrate our theory, that of farming. A single family, man, wife, and two or three children, under twenty-one years of age, cannot carry on farming profitably. Indeed, we believe their labors *on their own lands* would not support them, if mere grain producers, as well as slaves are usually supported. At least, where the family consisted of husband and wife and four or five young children, their labor would be inadequate to their support.

The expenses of small farms are proportionately much greater than those of large ones. To make and keep up an enclosure around a five acre field, of ordinary land, would cost more than the gross amount of sales of crops. Farmers of fifty acres must have a wagon, a fan, granary, and many other things quite as costly as those on a farm of three hundred acres. The labor or expense of sending to mill, to the blacksmith's shop, to stores, and to market, and the general labor of providing and superintending, are as great on a small farm as on one of much larger size. Every day's experience of the world shows the great economy of carrying on business on a large scale. Mammoth steamships are taking the place of sail vessels, mammoth hotels of ordinary taverns, and railroads and omnibuses are supplanting common roads and carriages.

Now, slavery, as an industrial institution, bears the same relation to independent, separate, free labor, that these modern improvements do to those which they have supplanted. But we have proof incontestible of the superior availability of slave labor in the fact, that the South, with a thin soil, is now producing a larger agricultural surplus than any other population of the same amount in the world, whilst the general comfort of its people, and its domestic consumption, exceed that of any other people.

We have thus attempted to show that Southern thought must inaugurate a new philosophy of ethics or morals, (in the restricted sense of the term morals,) because the present system resulting from the competition, and every man for himself, theory of free society, is selfish and anti-scriptural. That it must originate a new theory in politics, because the present system proposes to govern men by "letting them alone," and encouraging the strong, astute, and wealthy, to make a continual war of the wits and of capital, upon the weak, poor, and ignorant.

That we must have a new social philosophy, because man is by nature helpless when alone, and social from taste, feeling, and necessity; and yet, political economy proposes to disintegrate society, and set every man up for himself.

And lastly, that we must have a new economic philosophy, because association of labor and division of expenses is the true secret of national and individual wealth, and that this is brought about by slavery, and prevented by free society. We know that after such society has lost its liberty, though still retaining its name, after a few have monopolized all capital, their power over the masses is greater than that of slave-owners. Then, association of labor and division of expenses is more perfect than in slave society. Then is (so called) free society more productive than slave society; but it is because slavery to capital has taken the place of domestic slavery. The employers profits become greater than those of the slaveholder, because he pays less wages to his laborers.

The Black Republicans and Abolitionists, with Sumner at the head, have displayed a degree of intellectual imbecility on the subject of the settlement of the public lands, that is absolutely marvellous and astounding, especially in a party, who, for thirty years, have done little else than study, write, speak, and agitate about sociological questions.

They boast that lands are dearer and labor cheaper at the North than the South. They say, (and say truly,) if you introduce white labor into Kansas, lands will be more valuable than if it be settled by slaveholders. Now, is it possible that they are such simpletons as not to see that they are asserting

that the white laborers of the North, as slaves to capital, get less wages than our slaves? Lands do not breed produce of themselves nothing valuable, and, if as common to all as air and water, would be as valueless as air and water. Their value is the amount which land monopoly enables the land owner to exact from the laborer. Where the laborer is allowed most of the proceeds of his labor, there lands are cheapest. Where he is allowed least, there lands are most valuable. Dogberry wished to be "written down an ass;" these men write themselves down asses twice in one sentence. Say they, "lands are dearer and labor cheaper at the North." If either proposition be true, their white laborers are more of slaves than our negroes. If it be true, as the abolitionists assert, that lands are dearer North than South, then our negroes are freer than their white laborers, for the price of land is the thermometer of liberty. But there is a vast deal more of knavery and hypocrisy than idiocy about these men. They are deliberately planning the enslavement of white men. The most active and influential man among them was the first man in America to demonstrate that land monopoly occasioned the enslavement of the laboring classes, and that as population became denser, this slavery to capital became infinitely worse than domestic slavery. He says, "during the last five centuries there has been a complete, a disastrous revolution in the ordinary condition of the toiling millions of civilized Europe—a revolution which has depressed them from comfort to wretchedness, from careless ease to incessant anxiety, and struggle for the bare means of existence." Now, Mr. Greely, for it is his language we quote, well knows that five centuries ago, when the laborers of Europe lived "in comfort and careless ease," they were slaves. Besides, this same Mr. Greely said free immigrants were worth a thousand dollars a head at a time negroes sold for five hundred. That is, yankee employers could cruelly and unmercifully squeeze twice as much from the labor of the immigrant, as the more generous and humane Southerner from the negro. In other words, the white laborer is just half as free as the negro slave, for he works twice as much for other people, and half as much for himself. Mr. Greely is the most active man in sending white laborers to Kansas to enhance the price of lands there. He is doing so with the deliberate purpose of enslaving them. Others, such as Sumner, may put in the plea of idiocy, for Sumner is a simpleton, but he, Mr. Greely, understands the subject, and has well expounded it in a controversy with Mr. Raymond, as the following extract will show:

"Will any say, you are talking of *British* distresses: what do they prove as to us? Ah, sir! the same general causes which have produced this fearful change in Europe are now at work here. Population is rapidly increasing;

wealth is concentrating; the public lands are rapidly passing into private ownership, often by tens of thousands of acres to a single individual. And as our population becomes compact, and land costly as in England, the evils now experienced by the many in Europe, will gradually fasten upon their brethren here. Our political institutions may do something to mitigate this; but how much! The master-evil in the condition of the English and Irish is the monopoly by the few of the God-given elements of production, which are necessary to all. Abolish monarchy, titles of nobility, church establishment, national debt, and whatever else you please, so long as the land shall remain the exclusive property of a small and isolated class, competition for the use of it as active as now, and rents consequently as high, so long will nothing have been accomplished beyond clearing away some of the elementary obstacles of the real and essential reform.

"But in our own country the footsteps of advancing destitution and abject dependence for the many, already sound ominously near. In our journals are advertisements to let out some hundreds of robust men from the immigrant alms-houses to work through the winter for their board, while tens of thousands in our city would gladly have been so disposed of from December to April. Nor is this lack of employment by any means confined to immigrants with those displaced by them. Thousands of American-born women are at this moment working long days in our city, for less than the cost of one good meal of victuals per day, say twenty-five cents;) and it was but yesterday that a friend, living in the country, casually informed me that he could hire as much farm labor in winter as he wanted, for the laborer's own board, or for 37½ cents per day without board. And these laborers are not foreigners, but the descendants of those who won our liberties on the battle-fields of the Revolution."

The South should daily remind the abolitionists that they, themselves, in effect, are continually asserting that the condition of our slaves is better than that of their free laborers—for if lands be dearer and labor cheaper with them, it only proves that their laborers, who cultivate the soil, get less of the proceeds of their labor than our slaves, and the landowner more of those proceeds than our slaveholders.

But the abolitionists are mendacious and hypocritical, for it is not possible, constituted as the human mind is, that since the universal and disastrous failure of negro emancipation, they can hold the same opinions that they did thirty years ago, when they were sanguinely expecting the entire success of the emancipation experiment. Many were then sincere—all are now false and hypocritical.

SOUTH SIDE VIEW OF THE UNION.

The author of the annexed article says in a note, from which the Editor will take the liberty of extracting:

"I am a native of the South, a planter, have always been a Whig, and until this summer's visit to the North, always opposed, in every shape and form, disunion. You here have my present convictions of the line of policy necessary to the slaveholding interests."

SOME twenty-seven years ago, sojourning in New England for purposes of education, we were led one evening, by youthful curiosity, to a public meeting called by a new born society styling itself, we believe, "the society for the Abolition of

slavery." Similar motives had gathered a full house. The wild glare of an unsettled brain marked the countenances of most of those who conducted the meeting. They disclaimed any intention to interfere directly with slavery in the States, but harangued much about its cruelties and immoralities. Their avowed object was to influence public opinion at the North to re-act on the South, and thereby ameliorate and speedily extinguish the unholy institution. They dwelt much on its abstract wrongfulness, and said some words, that made everybody stare and wonder if they were not clean "daft," about slaveholders being man stealers, thieves, and pirates. They claimed that slavery could not be sustained by the Bible, and was condemned by the teachings of Christ. There were no flings at the *Constitution*, but much was said about the "inalienable rights" of the *Declaration of Independence*. As they unfolded their visionary theories and chimerical schemes, a smile of surprise and compassion would occasionally light up the face of the audience, some hisses, but no applause interrupted the proceedings. When the exhibition was over, the assembly went away smiling and pitying the strange enthusiasts, who could embark in so hopeless an undertaking. With most of us it was the subject of a days wonder, and then passed out of mind. "Behold how great a smoke, a little fire kindleth." How has this thing, begun in a corner, grown till, like the haze of Indian summer, it fills the whole atmosphere! Now, these men elect Congressmen; have Governors and Legislatures doing their behests; and (spite of the concentrated conservatism of the whole nation) well nigh placed their candidate in the Presidential chair.

These were the first raindrops pattering against our windows; then some hailstones rattled on the panes; but now, the same fanatics, with swollen ranks, are firing rifle balls that explode when they strike the mark. At first, we responded with ridicule, then with remonstrance and argument; we have set before them the law and the Constitution, but appealing to a "higher law" they call for a new compact, new laws, and a new Constitution. Every time the political cauldron is stirred, the subject of slavery comes uppermost, and the clamor and votes against us increase in rapid ratio. Thousands of voters and hundreds of speakers who once plied the war against Abolition, (calling it fanaticism and treason,) are now ranged on its side, and deal us the most insulting and persevering blows. Men who once said, "is thy servant a dog to do this thing," are now doing us all the mischief inveterate hate and blind prejudice can suggest. Not merely the politicians and those who usually interest themselves in elections are now engaged in this warfare, but quiet clergymen (messengers of

peace) rave and froth when our institution is the topic, from the pulpit and the *prayer meeting* they keep up the fusilade against us; from teacher and professor comes a steady and increasing stream of invective, impressing the minds of the rising generation with prejudices and opinions, on a subject their limited observation disables them from judging of correctly, but which years of experience may not efface. Even staid and conservative Yale, whose voice was not wont to be heard in the political arena, now fulminates against us amongst the loudest in angry popular assemblies, the lecture room and the magazine, wrathful and merciless as Achilles pursuing Hector, they would transfix us with their fiery darts. The aim is to excommunicate, to render us loathed and ignominious. Their cry is "*Delenda est Carthago.*"

If any Southern man thinks these the quakings of timid capital, the alarm of him who "fleeth when no man pursueth," the nightmare of a dreamer, let him, with eyes and ears open and alert, travel through New England, confer with her intelligent farmers and villagers, attend her hustings; talk with her sober faced men of business, mercantile, manufacturing, professional, or educational; go into her churches; read her daily, weekly, and monthly periodicals, examine the shelves of her bookstores, and tell me what he has heard and seen *touching slavery*. If he will gather her opinions from those whose interest it is to agree with and flatter him; from greedy landlords whose wine and viands he pays for without scrutiny of bills; from shopkeepers retailing their goods to him at Southern prices; from manufacturers working mainly for the Southern market; from democratic office seekers; from toadies hanging about him to gather some rays of respectability, or pick up some crumbs from the rich man's table; or, over his cups, feasting with the swollen men of fashion, to whom his wealth and disposition to spend it *dashingly* have made him acceptable at some fancy watering place, I doubt not he will come home satisfied it is all "bosch," reporting all safe, the conservative men all on our side, and the clamor only raised by some pestilent babblers of no sense or influence.

Who are those that stand by us at the North, or rather, I might ask (for it will describe the full measure of their avowed friendship) who are they at the North that do not rejoice at every mishap that befalls us, make the most of every isolated ease of cruelty to slaves, will barely permit us to recover our fugitives, and acknowledge some right on our part to a drawing in the lottery for the common territories? Loudest, boldest, and most numerous are the Democratic office seekers (it is perfectly surprising how many, in proportion to the number of offices, have aspirations in the way) they feel that *our fifteen*

States are secure to the party that espouses the side of slavery, and it will be strange if, at least for awhile, they cannot coax enough of the balance to keep them in power and in reach of the public crib.

Next in numbers and industry comes a crowd lured by mobocratic license, with little knowledge and less principle, willing to have the rabble in the ascendancy, and anxious to put down some men of mark, and influence, or pure character, on the other side whose lives are a reproach to them. Next, are those who have always been in the habit of voting with the Democratic party and swallowing the Democratic platform, "going it blind." They take their cue from *their* newspaper, and keep their watchful eyes on some burly fogleman of the vicinage. Next in importance, (the salt of the whole,) but mostly, men who rarely mingle in the political scuffle, and soon tire at the work, are a considerable body of conservative Union loving patriotic men, filled with visions of a proud destiny in store for the *United* land of Washington, for the sake of peace at home, and an American freedom enlightening the world, subduing certain prejudices of their own, still cast their votes on our side. Kindred to these (and some almost deserving to rank with them) is a large class thoroughly alarmed at last, at the ruinous consequences, to them and their section of disunion. They have discovered that the South would not be the greatest sufferer in the division, but that prostrate industry at the North must feel the blow in an equal or a superior degree. They begin to discern glimmering through the mists of the future, when they have parted with our cotton, our sugar, rice, tobacco, hemp, and our overflowing river draining the continent, heavy loss to them, but a rich endowment that will draw unto us suitors from all the mighty ones of earth—once freely theirs but then gone, gone forever from their foolish grasp. Some traders making their entire gains by intercourse with our region are eminent specimens of this class.

It will not do to rely on a party, made up of such fragments for a permanent support. Any one of these classes deserting us in some two or three States, is powerful enough to leave us at the mercy of our adversaries. The major part of the whole have never soberly reflected on the right or wrong of slavery, and those who have, go no further than to say, on the whole it is best to let the institution alone *for the present*; we are in no manner responsible for it; we believe it an evil that will soon work out its own destruction.

Why should we love and cling to a Union our equality and rights in which hang by so precarious a thread? Had we not better part with our few sincere and honest friends there, (they

will commend our prudence and forgive us on a calm review of our necessities,) and our many "bogus" ones, *while we may* in safety to ourselves, and without fratricidal war, rather than wait till they have one by one forsaken us, some because they could not serve us, and others because we could not *serve them*.

The last two or three years have wrought a wonderful change of opinion in New England on the slavery question. Vast numbers of her most honest and earnest minds have been exasperated by what they call Southern insolence, Southern encroachments, Southern aggrandizement, and Southern selfishness, so exasperated by these fancied or real wrongs, that they feel ready to cast prudence and the law of love to the winds, and at all hazards, and over every obstacle, rush in the directest way, to the extinguishment of the hated institution, though it involve in ruin the entire South. When the Sumner affair, repeal of the Missouri compromise, Kansas matters or the Dred Scott decision becomes the topic, it stirs them to frenzy, like William Tell they cry, "Oh! for something to tear." The numbers and influence of those so affected is steadily on the increase. Call the universal Yankee nation busy bodies, if you please, but surely they are busy bodies that bring *something to pass*; not famous for lack of perseverance and expedients; much addicted to progress and success. Their works at home and abroad establish these claims. Call them, if you will, meddlesome, inquisitive, underhanded self-opinionated, parsimonious, you cannot deny that there is a doggedness, and a self-reliance, a hopefulness, and a resolution *not to be beat*, with a stern Puritanism at the bottom of the Yankee character that has won them many a triumph under the most adverse circumstances, and bedecked New England with many an unfading laurel from court and council hall, and stricken field. These qualities are now fairly enlisted in this quarrel, and are making themselves felt far beyond the bounds of New England. Their slogan has already been heard in the recent canvass in Missouri; Virginia begins to feel it; they have almost wrested Kansas from our too careless grasp.

We have hitherto been looking mainly at New England, but where do not New England men, of every profession, go! And where in all our broad land is not her influence telling? She grows the men, matures their minds and prejudices, and sends them forth to subdue the great West. They look back to her for their education, their religion, and their opinions. She follows them, wherever they go, with her preachers, lecturers, schoolmasters, pamphlets, reviews, and newspapers. They never return to the poverty-stricken homestead, but in their hearts they honor her institutions and her ways; and they will ever strive to set up something, in their new homes,

as near like her's as an imitation ever is to the original. Hence miniature New England villages and cottages are peeping up through all the wild West; and in the region of mind captive Greece still subdues the stern Roman. If our friends can hardly hold their own in any of the free States, it is owing to the ever-coming swarms from this bee-hive of nations. We may bind them over, a few years longer, to keep the peace; there have been frequent lulls in the storm, (at times it seemed almost quelled,) but soon would swell again with tenfold fury. We have gone to the ultimate resort under the law and the Constitution. He is a bold man, and a confident, that will now pursue his fugitive, and arrest him in New England; and a lucky one, if, with safe limbs, he ever gets home again, with or without his slave. If not already impossible, it soon will be, without a pass from these Roderick Dhu's.

The Supreme Court set up our rights on a pedestal; instantly New England deems us a criminal in the pillory, and throws pellets of every description at us. One howl of repudiation, one call for reform of the court, or repeal of the law, leaps from every pulpit and rostrum, from review and printed sheet in every form, and on all occasions. Their boasted orators are even now calling for a new constitution, and some have even dared to suggest a new Bible and a new God that does not recognize slavery. Banks, disclaiming any interference in the States, throws out the hope to them and the threat to us, that their action will, ere long, as it has done in Missouri, wake to life, *in the slaveholding States*, a free-soil vote that will sweep the hated thing away suddenly. Already an overwhelming majority (in the free States) is fixedly of the opinion that some steps must be taken towards the final extinguishment of slavery in these United States. The genius of the North and East is clearly intolerant of the institution, and in a glow of indignation against the South. Few and far between are those who defend us because *we are in the right, or they can see anything good in us or defensible in slavery*; their numbers are so insignificant, and their voice so drowned by the outcry of our enemies, as but for their liberality of mind and purity of intention, hardly to deserve mention. These yesty waves, now swelling so high, may calm down as they have calmed before. Skillful manœuvres of cunning politicians have sometimes silenced the storm; and sometimes the deep tones of *the conservatism* of the nation have swept across the chaos and stilled for a space the turmoil, driving faction from the field, as when the lion roars the smaller beasts seek their dens; but soon the uproar begins again, each time rising higher and louder, like Anteus thrown by Hercules, each time he touched his mother earth he rose stronger. Who

will hold this earth-born fiend in the air and strangle it? For our part we see no power strong enough to drive out this evil spirit, but *disunion*. The body of its victim may be rent, but then he will be seen "clothed and sitting in his right mind." It has not yet reached its acme, the assailants still grow fiercer and more numerous, while our defenders wax fainter and fewer every day. The drift of opinion at the North is steadily setting to a trial of strength with slavery in its stronghold. The open attack may be deferred half a century, but it is surely coming. The drifters are hardly aware of the result, and boldly deny any such purpose; but their whole movement hitherto has been to pinch and trammel the institution, to alarm the consciences and fears of those embarked in it, and to drill and concentrate the attacking force. Their masses have not yet peered through the fog-bank in which they are running, but soon they will see the land ahead to which they have been steering; and soon casting every film from their eyes, and mask from their face, will boldly aim at reaching it. Shall we sit idly on our ramparts while these miners are burrowing under them? or shall we so bestir ourselves as to give them work enough to defend their own camp? If we calmly let them work on; if we look only at our temporary interest and comfort, and say let posterity take care of itself, we are safe; the assault will not be made or succeed in our day; presently we will find ourselves, with rusty weapons in our powerless grasp, bound hand and foot at the mercy of our adversary. The area of free-soil is rapidly increasing; busy hands and alert brains are spreading its borders; their lines of circumvallation are ceaselessly going up around our citadel; presently the cry will go forth, we have hemmed them in, food, water, and reinforcements are cut off; the last passway of retreat is closed; they must starve, be cut to pieces, or surrender. The common soldiers are scarcely aware of the plans of their generals, doubtless many murmurs go up from the ranks against the slowness of the approach, and the uselessness of many of the outworks; but still they toil on, hoping soon to hear the glad signal "up guards, and at them." To drop metaphor, another general election, or the one succeeding, will demonstrate to them their power; and to us the culpable irresolution, or love of ease and present safety, that has kept us inactive so long, alas! too long, (it may be,) already, to extricate ourselves. Like Gulliver, among the Lilliputians, slight cords, but numerous and skillfully put on, hamper, and, perchance, hopelessly enchain us.

This sectional division almost precludes the hope of a happy continuance of our Union: to be permanent, it must be hearty, confiding, and sincere, without undermining on either

side; or any yielding, for the moment, that better holds may be taken in the final tussle. At present, the two sections are eyeing each other like combatants stripping for a deadly fight, yet, uncertain whether it will be a death struggle, a conciliation, or an agreement, like Abraham and Lot, to divide the land.


There are but two plans of the campaign left for us. We must make up our minds either to fight a constantly retreating fight, to retire step by step as slowly as we may, and endeavor to push our empire farther south; or, at once, boldly to say, we will divide the inheritance, and each shift for himself. The first alternative is sure inevitable destruction, sooner or later, dying by degrees. We must meet the shock somewhere; and sometime say, "thus far shalt thou go, here shall thy proud waves be stayed." If deferred a few short years, where in the hour of our necessity will Missouri, Kentucky, Maryland, Delaware, and even Virginia be found, (preyed upon, as they must continue to be, by underground railroads, and beset by hords of proselyting emigrants)? Not as now, methinks, by our side, but gone over to the enemy, forbidding us to leave with threats of *compulsory detention*, and calling for a general emancipation. We, disheartened and unnerved by the desertion and the cordon around us, might even then venture on the untried journey, but it would be divided in council, lacking confidence in each other, jostled and pointed at on every side. Like the famous ten thousand, we might win our way to safety, (spite of all opposers,) but it would be with blood and an exhausting struggle, and a return home with only our arms and our colors flying; or, on the other hand, we might, vanquished and bleeding, be laid prostrate, with all we hold dear, at the feet of a confiscating and enraged foe. Few of our numbers would be there to see, few to bewail, and what friendly voice or pen to tell the story of our struggles and misfortunes?

But if, choosing the bolder alternative, like one man standing to our arms, we lift the banner *now*, those States will go with us, unmolested, and with our fair share of the territories, relying on our good cause and our prowess, we can possess our own in peace, with no man to make afraid. Once separate, and the line drawn, they would remain with us, bond or free, forever. The former portends a long wrangle and final subjugation; the latter (if a leap in the dark) promises some good hopes, and some brighter days—at least, it nerves the arm, and strings the soul to high resolve that seldom fails of its reward.

Let us then try the brave adventure, and, like Cæsar, cross the Rubicon; it is the way to greatness and to glory. A few

more years of hesitation, and lingering on the brink, will render it *too late*. The territories all theirs, when they muster their strength for a final conflict with slavery in the States, backed, perchance, by a favoring world, our replying trumpets will blow a weak and uncertain sound. We may then well bewail our lost opportunity, and our folly, in *this day* of our power.

The lovers of peace and fair play at the North, may, for a space, turn the balance in our favor, and by our constant united help, uphold our equal rights in the Union; but they are fighting an ever retreating fight, and are yielding outwork after outwork, their ranks are ever thinning by desertion, the day is not distant when, like Scotland's tired and broken host on Flodden, they will melt away in a night. The unequal struggle can be kept up but a few years at most. Shall we delay till the last State has abandoned us, meanwhile growing weaker ourselves in the contrast? Now we are strong in reliance on our own strength and our good cause. Now our products are sought by a competing world, great nations grow pale with apprehension lest we may not produce enough of cotton for their wants, and even our considerate northern brethren look anxiously for an increase of our sugar: nor is our tobacco, rice, and hemp crop a matter of indifference to many parts of the civilized world. Shall we, the producers of these master staples, go a begging for allies; shall we dread the cold shoulder from any quarter? *Interest* is too great a regulator in this stage of the world's history to permit a lingering doubt on this point. What does the North produce that she will not be willing to part with on as advantageous terms to us as now? Does she furnish the best education, and will not our students be as welcome to her halls as now? Does she make shoes, and woolen and cotton fabrics, and build ships and railroads, and will not our merchants, and travelers, and freight, be as welcome customers for them all, as now? We never received either as a favor, but for a consideration. She will grow poorer, hence less insolent, less meddlesome, less aggressive. Prosperity has ever bred a dictatorial spirit. When she *solicits* our trade, and brings her products to our door, (in the midst of a sharp competition,) she will cheerfully load her galleys with the product of slave labor, and leave us undisturbed in the enjoyment of our own. Her sensitive conscience will then be at rest, the "*casus belli*" will have been removed—the sin of slavery will then be no national stain on her. She will be as clean as Pilate, when he washed his hands. They may arraign each other at home to their hearts content for trading in slave products: it will only be the viper biting the file, "our wethers are unwrung." If now and then



a fugitive escapes across the guarded border, (a separate government will give us the power, now lacking, to multiply these guards,) it will hardly be a more frequent and easy feat than now; nor will his reception be quite so enthusiastic, (bad citizen as he is,) endangering, as it must do, the good feeling with a neighboring nation of profitable customers, strong-handed, hot-blooded, and accustomed to right their wrongs wherever they are given. Nor will the aiders and abettors of these escapes rank quite so high on the roll of philanthropists, when their practices involve the peace and welfare of two great nations lying along side of each other, and mutually advantageous and dependent for some of the necessaries, and many of the luxuries of life. For the sake of gain, and national and social comity, she will silence her set-every-body-right busy-bodies. At present a weak national executive feebly *pursues* our fugitives, while the convenient hand of State sovereignty constantly interposes to embarrass the pursuer and assist the escape.

While it will thus remove the main excuse, and diminish the facilities for interference with our property, and furnish them more important occupation for their leisure moments, what will be the reverse action of *disunion* on us? We now manufacture little; our mines are unworked; we do not import; we build and own no ships; our railroads advance with uncertain steps; our halls of learning are half filled, ill endowed, much neglected; our cities languish, the resort of adventurers in haste to make their pile and be off. In a word, we must confess the whole process of development goes on far more slowly with us than with them. While we have the North, with her present start, to lean on and resort to, we will continue to slumber in these matters as we do now; we will have no colleges and schools of our own of the highest grade; so with our factories and other industrial pursuits. Sudden spurts, spasmodic efforts, will here and there begin such enterprises, and a while push them with vigor, but because older rivals at the North *excel or undersell*, they will be continually abandoned and let go to ruin, dotting our region all over with "follies," key notes for croakers, lions in the way to the timid, and warnings to the prudent. It is idle to talk of waiting a while and preparing for disunion by first procuring an outfit of these things. It is contrary to an honorable nature to pursue any such underhanded course, and it is one easy of detection and easy countervailed. We cannot be made all to pull together on any such rope, and we will all the while be growing poorer in the contrast. How are we to prepare in the face of such rivalry? It would be up hill work, weakening and disheartening to the workers in it. While we were thus

preparing, would the rest of the country be idle in counter-preparations, and in accumulating the means of *coercion*? In the Union we must constantly fatten their strength, by it we cannot weaken them or turn them from their fell purpose.

Our Revolutionary sires flung off the yoke when first it became a burden, they did not wait for preparation, but flew to their arms, such as they had. Have we no oppression—no degrading stigma about to be placed on us? Is exclusion from all the common property no oppression and no degradation? But it is only an attempt at exclusion, not successful yet, we are only trying the issue now. When will the trial be through, and the result ascertained? When we have lost Kansas, New Mexico, Utah, Oregon, and are foiled in an attempt to divide Texas, will the matter then be decided, or will our waverers and tide-waiters still say wait, we are not quite prepared, they have not yet attacked us at home, we are still enjoying much prosperity in the Union, surely they will reverence the memory of Washington, they will not touch the Constitution, they will leave our vested rights alone? If we had no children such counsels might prevail and pass for the suggestions of prudence, but in view of the disasters that must befall our posterity, in case we err in judgment, and let slip the golden moment, dare we risk the delay and call it “masterly inactivity?”

At present we are too tied down to a single avocation. Agriculture is the absorbing pursuit, all others are feebly subsidiary to it. The nation that keeps all the occupations of man running “*pari passu*” is the most vigorous, the most potent for good or ill, the most felt in the world, and the most to be envied. Disunion will call for and foster a variety of home products. The same spirit that has made the United States (once dependent on Great Britain) great producers in all the fields of industry, nay—rivals of the mother country in every market of the world, will set in motion amongst us all the wheels of busy labor. State pride, and national defence and convenience, will demand at least a temporary damper on foreign competition by protective duties, this will invite the hand of home industry to embark in new enterprises, which, in turn, will promote economy by furnishing a market for what we now waste. This diversity of pursuits will shake off all that is lethargic in Southern life, and stagnant in the Southern mind. These new avenues will allure to our borders industrious and intelligent workmen from all the earth, even many of our astute brethren of the North will then, *forswearing allegiance*, gladly forsake their barren soil and frozen clime for our more prolific and remunerative region. They will aid and teach us how to improve those natural advantages a kind Prov-

idence has showered upon us. They will come to us—not as now—spies, incendiaries, birds of passage, but saying to us in the words of Ruth—“whither thou goest, I will go; and where thou lodgest, I will lodge; thy people shall be my people, and thy God, my God.” True, we *might*, in the course of time, unfold this wealth *in the Union*, but not till the teeming North has “embellished all her slopes,” and of her superabundance and for lack of other fields to conquer, empties her surplus on us, as the Goths and Vandals came down on fair Italy. With all these aids and stimulants we must advance with equal or faster steps than they. Why not faster? We have the climate, the raw material, the ductile labor, the capital superior to theirs, and minds and bodies surely their equals; we need only the skill, and experience, and the *nerve to begin*, which separation and these advantages must draw unto us.

We will be a compact people, made homogeneous by a great similarity of interests, and one principle of cohesion above all others—slavery. With an alert rival on our northern frontier, and this internal institution in bad odor with outside nations, (thus always in the face of an enemy,) we will be driven to an intercourse, an interchange of commodities, a sympathy and a friendship that must ever bind us closer together, and cause us to rely on each other solely for defence and support. *Now*, fully one half of those who make laws for us, and manage the internal and external affairs of the nation, are our open or secret enemies, in no manner amenable to our control, and panting to stab us at some vulnerable point, soon to possess an ever-increasing majority. *Then*, will our rulers have one common interest with us, and be stewards, accountable to a master who has not “gone into a far country.” It is essential to purity in high places that the rulers should be in close proximity to the electors, and that the latter should be in a commanding position whence they can audit their accounts frequently. A smaller Union would greatly promote an increased business, and social intercourse between its parts, enabling the people to detect the impostors who mislead them, and making “honesty and capability” the only tests for office. Then would vanish the struggle and the wire-pulling to keep together a *national party*, and freedom shriekers and Southern rights men would be numbered amongst the things there were, their vocation would be gone. Once fairly divided, the policy of both sections would cease to be aggressive, *we* would only ask to be let alone, and *they* to share our trade on the same terms as the most favored nations. We would both be firmly bound over to keep the peace. Neither would *we* be so feeble in numbers, or so pent up in point of territory, as to be insignificant in the family of nations. A glance at the map

of Europe, with a summing up of the population of a few of the most renowned States there, will give a satisfactory quietus to that objection. Our climate, during a portion of the year, in a large part of our country, would defend us from invasion; our men, familiar from childhood with the use of arms, make us a nation of soldiers on an emergency; a war having any reference to our "peculiar institution" would so enrage our masses that no principle could be evoked in an adversary to cope with it. These constitute us, for mere purposes of defence, a nation equal to any other people. And then who can say that some of the vigorous Western States, in view of the many inconveniences the separation would entail on them, and the advantages a connection with us would secure, might not (laying aside some of their present prejudices) find it to their tastes and interests to join fortunes with us. Stranger alliances have occurred in the conflict of ages.

New York and Boston, from their crowded quays and busy rialto, laugh these speculations and prognostics to scorn. So laughed the merchant princes of Palmyra and Venice, while the commerce of the Orient rolled its opulent stream through their streets; but a few short years intervened between the height of their prosperity and their rapid decline. The genius and the boldness of man found a better avenue for commerce than their slow and inconvenient channels. Once turned aside, it never returned. Industry, when intelligent and untrammelled, builds her furnaces close by the ore-bed and the coal; where the raw material is, there will consort the workman and the carrier. Let once the Southern banner be unfurled, then where will congregate the white-winged birds of commerce, (harbingers of thrift)—what marts will sway the sceptre of this continent? Surely not the wintry harbors of New York and Boston, something more central and in more congenial latitude will be sought. Then will we mould and fashion slavery, paring off its objectionable, and calling out its ameliorating features, until perchance, by the help of a smiling Providence, and our own stout arms, we will present to the world a model Republic and a model people, wherein the rights of all equipoise, and without clashing, contribute to build up a national strength and a national character whose equal the world has not yet seen. Shall we choose this bright and manly destiny, or that baser one suggested by timid avarice and enfeebling inclination, to do what is easiest and pleasantest for the hour, like him who lays down on arctic snows to slumber, or him whom the vampire fans?

SOUTHERN SLAVERY AND THE COTTON TRADE.

It appears to be very generally conceded in this country and in Europe, that the regular and permanent supply of raw cotton, for the commercial wants of the world, must, to a large extent, be produced in the United States, and from slave labor.

The quantity of raw cotton imported into England from Brazil, Madras, Calcutta, Egypt, &c., has not increased, to any considerable extent, during the last thirty years, notwithstanding the patronage and fostering care of the British government; while on the other hand, the cotton crop of the United States has continued to augment, and now amounts to over eighty per cent. of the whole consumption, with an increasing demand, at fully remunerating prices.

But the American Cotton Trade has not reached its present prosperous condition without meeting several almost ruinous vicissitudes. From 1835 to 1845, the annual production of American Cotton exceeded the foreign and domestic demand, and the accumulated stock in Liverpool alone, at the close of the commercial year, December 31, 1845, footed up nearly twelve hundred thousand bales. The price, which in 1835 was 16 cents per pound, gradually depreciated, in proportion to the over production until 1845, when the average of the season was only 5½ cents per pound, actually less than the cost of production. With this immense stock on hand, and the prospect of an unlimited future supply, the commercial and manufacturing classes in England, not only dictated their own prices to the American planter, but they seized the favorable opportunity for an attempt to emancipate themselves altogether from any future dependence upon the United States, for the raw material of their most profitable commerce. Various impracticable schemes were set on foot, and vast sums of money expended in order to stimulate and extend the production of the raw cotton, by free labor, while the British press in aid of the effort, denounced the institution of slavery in the United States in unmeasured terms.

This was a gloomy period for the American Cotton Planter, but every one possessed of any commercial sagacity was aware that this state of things could not continue for any very protracted period of time, and the result was what a political economist would have anticipated. The supply of raw cotton had been greater than the demand, and cotton planting ceased to be remunerative. Capital was diverted to other and more

profitable means of investment, until the equilibrium should be restored by the gradually increasing consumption of the raw material. From 1845 to 1855 the condition and prospects of the cotton growing States of the confederacy have been slowly but steadily improving. The point of extreme depression in the cotton trade has been reached and passed, and it is now admitted, by manufacturers and consumers, that the supply of cotton, stimulated as it is by full and remunerating prices, is unequal to the necessary and imperative demand. Public meetings have recently been held in London, Liverpool, Manchester and other commercial emporiums, for the purpose of adopting measures to increase the growth of cotton within the British colonial possessions, not in a spirit of aggression upon us, but in prospect of a future inadequate supply from the United States, and an anxious and restless feeling pervades commercial circles, both in this country and in Europe, in relation to this all absorbing subject.

The popular impression has heretofore prevailed, almost universally, that the United States could supply cotton to an unlimited extent, and this opinion would be well founded if the result depended solely upon the extent and fertility of the soil embraced within the cotton growing States. But there is another element, which enters into and overrides the whole subject, and that is the present and future demand and supply of slave labor. In order fully to understand this position, it will be necessary to inquire at what ratio slaves have heretofore increased within the cotton growing States, and what augmentation may reasonably be expected for the future.

Cotton is not produced to any considerable extent, if at all, in but nine of the fifteen slave States, and in some of these States, rice, sugar, and tobacco form no inconsiderable item of staple production. The slave increase in the United States from excess of births over deaths, has been about twenty eight per cent. for each decade since 1790, while the increase within the cotton growing States, from this source and from accessions from other States has been 103.80 per cent., from 1830 to 1840, and 51.41 per cent., from 1840 to 1850. This large augmentation of slaves within these nine States, has been caused mostly by the migration of slave owners, and partly by the purchase of slaves from Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, and Kentucky.

The following Tabular Statement, compiled from the compendium of the United States census for 1850 will illustrate this branch of the subject:

Cotton Growing States.

STATES.	Per cent. of slave increase, 1830 to 1840.	Per cent. of slave increase, 1840 to 1850.	Number of slaves, 1850.
Alabama.....	115.68	35.22	342,844
Arkansas.....	335.64	166.26	47,100
Florida.....	65.90	52.85	39,310
Georgia.....	29.15	35.85	381,682
Louisiana.....	53.70	45.32	244,809
Mississippi.....	197.31	58.74	309,878
South Carolina.....	3.68	17.71	384,984
Tennessee.....	29.27	30.80	239,459
Texas.....		estimated 50.00	58,227
Average.....	103.30	average 51.41	total 2,048,293

From the above table, it will be seen that the total number of slaves within the nine cotton growing States in 1850 was 2,048,393; and I now propose to show what portion of these slaves were actually occupied as field hands in the culture of cotton.

Mr. De Bow, the superintendent of the United States census of 1850, remarks at page 94 of the compendium: "In no census have the occupations of slaves been recorded. How many are employed as mechanics, how many as laborers, how many as house servants cannot be known; nor more than approximately how many on the different agricultural crops of the South." He thinks it might be safe to say, "that about 400,000 or 12.48 per cent. of the total slave population are urban, and the balance rural, and of the latter class, at least as many slaves will be employed as domestics as there are slave proprietors." He very properly remarks, that "slaves under ten and over sixty are seldom employed industrially." The number of slave proprietors in the above-named States in 1850, as ascertained by the census, was 188,000 or 14.01 per cent., and the number of slaves under ten and over sixty was 715,220, or about 35 per cent. of the total slave population.

The following table will exhibit the result of my distribution of slave labor in 1850:

Total number of slaves in the nine cotton growing States.....	2,043,293
Deduct those under 10 and over 60 years of age..	715,220
Leaving total number of field hands.....	1,333,073
Of whom there are urban slaves 12.48 per cent..	166,367
Domestic servants..... 14.01 per cent..	188,000
Rice crop "..... 5.00 per cent..	66,653
Sugar "..... 6.00 per cent..	79,984
Tobacco "..... 1.07 per cent..	22,662
Cotton "..... 60.72 per cent..	809,407
	100.00
	1,333,073

Rice, Sugar, and Tobacco crops in the nine Cotton States.

Rice crop, 1850.....	209,839,087 lbs.
Sugar crop, "	237,063,000 lbs.
Tobacco crop "	22,173,416 lbs.

I cannot of course pretend to absolute certainty in fixing the occupation of our slave population; but after a careful examination of the best sources of correct information at hand, I believe that the above distribution of slave labor cannot be far from correct.

The Hon. Levi Woodbury, late Secretary of the Treasury, in his report to Congress in 1836, accompanied by his elaborate and carefully compiled "Tables and notes on the cultivation, manufacture and foreign trade of cotton" estimated the number of field hands, employed upon the cotton crop of 1835, at 340,000, and yielding about 3.5 bales to the hand.

Mr. Woodbury was certainly possessed of the best means of information, upon this, as upon any important subject gravely communicated to Congress; and if we assume that he accurately states the number of field hands employed upon the cotton crop of 1835, and that they increased upon the census ratio of 103.80 per cent. from 1835 to 1840 and of 51.41 per cent from 1840 to 1850, the number employed in 1850 will be found as follows:

Mr. Woodbury's estimate of field hands, 1835.....	340,000
Add one-half of 103.80 per cent. to 1840.....	176,460
<hr/>	
Total field hands, 1840.....	516,460
Add one-half of 51.41 per cent. to 1845.....	132,730
<hr/>	
Total field hands, 1845.....	649,190
Add one-half of 51.41 per cent to 1850.....	166,841
<hr/>	
Total field hands, 1850.....	816,031

The difference between the result thus produced and my own estimate is quite immaterial, but for greater accuracy I will assume the average of the two to be the correct number, say 812,769.

Before I proceed to the conclusions resulting from the adoption of 812,769 as the number of field hands employed in the cotton crop of 1850, I will state very frankly that much depends upon accuracy in this particular. But my estimate cannot be very far from the true number, and if I have erred it is in company with the late Secretary of the Treasury, who was noted for general accuracy. I will also here remark that there is no accurate information, upon the ratio of slave increase, in the cotton growing States since 1850. It cannot be greater, and is probably less, than that of the previous decade;

but for subsequent purposes, I will consider it to be the same, say 51.41 per cent. for 10 years, or 5.14 per cent. per annum.

Assuming the data above established to be correct, we find that the cotton crop of 1850, equal, by the average of the three crops of 1849, 1850, and 1851, to be 2,488,987 bales, was produced by the labor of 812,769 field hands, and yielded an average of 3.06 bales to the hand.

I now propose to show, in a tabular form, approximately, the increase of slaves in the cotton growing States from 1850 to 1860, at the rate of 51.41 per cent., and the increase of cotton production, for the same period, at the rate of 3.06 bales to the hand. The result will be as follows:

Field hands, 1850.....	812,769	Crop, at 3.06 per head....	2,488,987
Add half of 51.44 per cent. for five years to 1855...	203,881		
Field hands, 1855.....	1,021,650	" " "	3,126,249
Add 5.14 per cent.....	52,512		
Field hands, 1856.....	1,073,162	" " "	3,283,875
Add 5.14 per cent.....	55,160		
Field hands, 1857.....	1,128,322	" " "	3,453,665
Add 5.14 per cent.....	57,995		
Field hands, 1858.....	1,186,317	" " "	3,630,130
Add 5.14 per cent.....	60,976		
Field hands, 1859.....	1,247,293	" " "	3,816,713
Add 5.14 per cent.....	64,110		
Field hands, 1860.....	1,311,403	" " "	4,012,893

The cotton crop of 1855, as reported was 3,527,800 bales, but it must be borne in mind that this crop was increased by at least 300,000 bales, kept back from the produce of the previous year by low water in the rivers in Alabama, Louisiana, Texas, and Arkansas. The average of the three crops of 1854, 1855, and 1856, was only 3,108,266 bales, a fraction less than the result produced by my calculation. The cotton crop of the United States has never reached 3,500,000, nor will it, for some years, unless slave labor can be increased, in the cotton growing States, at a greater ratio than at present.

In order to produce the crop of 1860, estimated at 4,012,893 bales, there must be an increase of field hands as we have seen of 289,753 over the number employed in the crop of 1855. The natural increase from excess of births over deaths, for the period mentioned, will, at the census ratio of 2.8 per annum, supply 143,031 of this number, leaving 146,722 field hands to be procured by migration or purchase from the other slave States.

But will even this large accession of slave labor and the suc-

cessful production of a crop of 4,012,893 bales in 1860, meet the legitimate demand? I think not. The consumption of raw cotton, at least since 1850, has been at the rate of 6.2 per cent. per annum, while the rate of supply, on which I have based my calculation, has been at the rate of 5.14 per cent. per annum. The crop of 1855, at my estimate was 3,126,249 bales, which increased at the rate of 6.2 per cent. per annum for five years to 1860 would produce the following result :

1855, crop, in bales.....	3,126,249
1856, " "	3,321,076
1857, " "	3,526,982
1858, " "	3,745,653
1859, " "	3,977,883
1860, " "	4,224,511

The crop of 1860 required by the consumption rate of increase, being more than 200,000 bales over my estimate of production, and that much at least, more than the utmost, that can be reasonably expected from the cotton crop of the United States. But if it is contended that a crop of 4,224,511 bales can be produced in 1860, there must be a corresponding increase of slave labor which will involve the necessity of employing 69,156 additional field hands, making in all 215,878 field hands over the natural increase of slaves in the cotton growing States.

To produce a crop even of 4,022,893 bales in 1860, will require an increase, as we have seen, of 146,722 field hands, which, if procured by purchase, will require the investment of at least 146,000,000 dollars, at the present value of this class of slave property, and if the crop is to be increased to meet the expected demand in 1860, the investment in slaves will be proportionately increased to about 220,000,000 dollars, or 44,000,000 dollars per annum, from five years from 1855.

The inquiry naturally suggests itself, where is this vast accession of slave labor to come from? can the slave States of Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, and Kentucky be depleted to that extent? or is such a result at all probable? The difficulty of procuring slaves at reasonable rates, has already been severely felt by the cotton planters, and this difficulty is constantly increasing. The production of rice, tobacco, wheat, Indian corn, &c., with stock raising, in those States, affords nearly if not quite as profitable employment for slave labor as cotton planting in the other States. They have not, as is generally supposed, a redundancy of slave labor, nor are they likely to have so long as their present prosperity continues.

The recent full development of the rich agricultural and mineral resources of those States, aided by an immense demand for their staple productions, has not only given full and

profitable employment to slave labor, but has improved the pecuniary condition of the slave owner, and placed him above the necessity of parting with his property, or of migrating with it into the cotton growing States.

But it is useless to pursue this chain of argument and figures any farther. It is simply absurd to suppose, that the cotton crop of the United States can be increased over the present production more than twelve hundred thousand bales in the short period of five years, even if the requisite amount of capital for investment in slaves could be found. The disproportion between supply and consumption is already too great, to expect to restore the equilibrium within this limited space of time, except by a check upon consumption. The surplus stock of cotton in Liverpool and in this country, which in 1845, amounted to nearly a year's consumption, has been gradually worked up, and the manufacturers and consumers are now dependent upon the actual yearly production from the United States. All experiments, with the object of extending the culture of cotton, in other countries have ended in utter failure, and they will be equally ineffectual in the future.

The people of England may then, with reason, feel a deep solicitude, in the success of cotton-planting in the United States. They are perfectly advised, that any disaster or considerable failure in our cotton crop, would inflict a blow upon commerce that would be felt throughout the civilized world; they are also at last convinced, that the supply of cotton cannot be certain and uniform unless produced by slave labor. It is in this view of the subject that the British Government, the British press, and the British people have ceased their fanatical denunciations of slavery and slave grown cotton. They are beginning to think that slavery, after all, is not so bad an institution. The London Times has even gone so far as to denounce the policy of the British Government for her expenditures of life and treasure in the suppression of the slave-trade; boldly taking the ground that the British squadron on the coast of Africa should be withdrawn and the object abandoned; and immense change has been effected in the fanatical opinions of the leading and influential classes of England, within the last few years, by the gigantic power of "King Cotton."

They now fully comprehend the idea, and freely admit the fact, that if an adequate supply of cotton is to be had at all, it must come from the United States, and that the ratio of increased supply is dependent upon and exactly limited by the future accession of slave labor to the cotton growing States. The present state of the cotton trade has convinced them, that any fanatical intermeddling with domestic slavery, would be not

only unwise and impolitic, but that a successful invasion of the rights of slave owners, in the Southern States of the Confederacy, would react with fatal effect upon British commerce.

Our wealthy and powerful neighbor is our best customer, and though he may not offer to supply us as of yore, with any number of slaves that may be necessary to make up the deficiency in our cotton crop, he will in the future give us very little cause of complaint against him in this behalf. He is far too sagacious, if not too conscientious, to quarrel with us on this subject, though he is willing to make war upon the balance of the world, to promote and extend the interest of cotton and commerce. He is now manœuvring a powerful fleet in the Chinese and Japanese seas, in order to be in readiness to enforce the arguments of his diplomatic and commercial agents in favor of a greater consumption of cotton fabrics.

MASSACHUSETTS AND BOSTON 1699 AND 1857.

In an address lately delivered somewhere at the North, the Hon. Caleb Cushing thus characterizes his fellow New Englanders, and does it with exceeding good grace. We compare it with what was said in 1699:

"You clearly perceived, and frankly, earnestly, powerfully contributed with Virginia to develop the great territorial capacities of the Northwest. But were you equally clear-sighted in regard to the not less important Southwest? Did you in will support Virginia there? Did you not struggle to prevent the acquisition of Louisiana, the acquisition of Florida, the acquisition of Texas, the acquisition of California? Was not the Union, as our fathers conceived it, thus completed in spite of you? And yet, who profited first, who profited next, who profited constantly, by each of these great stages of the great event?"

In 1699 one Ned Ward published in England an exceedingly spicy and attractive account of a visit he paid to Boston in that year. We can only give a few extracts, but they suggest how little a century or two can effect in changing national characteristics. If we mistake not a copy of Ward's book is in the hands of Mr. Smetz, of Savannah:

"On the southwest side of *Massachusetts Bay* is *Boston*; whose name is taken from a town in *Lincolnshire*, and is the Metropolis of all *New England*. The houses in some parts join as in *London*. The *buildings*, like their *women*, being *neat* and *handsome*, and their *streets*, like the *hearts* of the *male inhabitants*, are paved with *pebble*."

"Every stranger is unavoidably fore'd to take this notice: that in Boston, there are more religious zealots than honest men, more parsons than churches, and more churches than parishes; for the town, unlike the people, is subject to no division.

"The inhabitants seem very religious, showing many outward and visible signs of an inward and spiritual grace; but tho' they wear

in their faces the innocence of doves, you will find them in their dealings, as subtle as serpents. Interest is their Bible, money their God, and large possessions the only Heaven they covet."

"A good cudgel apply'd in the dark, is an excellent medicine for a malignant spirit. I know it once experienced at Boston, with very good success, upon an old rigged Precisian, one of their select, who used to be more than ordinary vigilant in discovering every little irregularity in the neighborhood; I happening one night to be pretty merry with a friend, opposite to the zealot's dwelling, who got out of his bed in his waistcoat and drawers to listen at our window. My friend having oft been serv'd so, had left unbolted his cellar trap-door, as a pitfall for Mr. Busy-body, who stepping upon it, sunk down with an outcry like a distressed mariner in a sinking Pinnace. My friend having planted a cudgel ready, run down stairs, crying 'Thieves!' and belabored old Troublesome very severely before he would know him. He crying out 'I am your neighbor.' 'You lye, you lye, you rogue,' says my friend, 'my neighbors are honest men; you are some thief come to rob my house.' By this time I went down with a candle, my friend seeming wonderfully surpris'd to see 'twas his neighbor, and one of the *select* too, put on a counterfeit countenance, and heartily beg'd his pardon. Away trooped the old fox, grumbling and shrugging up his shoulders, and became afterwards the most moderate man in authority in the whole town of Boston.

"The women here are not at all inferior in beauty to the ladies of London, having rather the advantage of a better complexion; but as for the men, they are generally *meagre*, and have got the *hypocritical* knack, like our *English Jews*, of screwing their faces into such *Puritanical* postures that you would think they were always praying to themselves, or running melancholy mad about some mystery in Revelations: So that 'tis rare to see a handsome man in the country, for they have all one cast, but of what tribe I know not.

"The gravity and piety of their looks, are of great service to these American christians: It makes strangers that come amongst them, give credit to their words. And it is a Proverb with those that know them, *whosoever believes a New-England Saint, shall be sure to be cheated: And he that knows how to deal with their traders, may deal with the devil and fear no craft.*

"I was mightily pleased one morning with a contention between two boys at a pump in Boston, about who should draw their water first. One jostled the other from the handle, and he would fill his bucket first, because his master said prayers and sung psalms twice a day in his family, and the other's master did not. To which the witty knave made this reply: 'Our house stands backward in a court; if my master had a room next to the street, as your master has, he'd pray twice to your master's once, that he wou'd, and therefore I'll fill my pail first, marry will I;' and did accordingly.

"Their industry, as well as their honesty, deserves equal observation; for it is practicable amongst them to go two miles to catch a horse, and run three hours after him, to ride half a mile to work, or a quarter of a mile to an ale-house.

"One husbandman in England will do more labor in a day, than a New-England planter will be at the pains to do in a week. For to every hour he will be two at an ordinary.

"They have wonderful appetites, and will eat like plough-men, though very lazy; and plough like gentlemen: It being no rarity there to see a man *eat* till he *sweats*, and *work* till he *freezes*.

"Provisions being plenty, their marriage feasts are very sumptuous. They are sure not to want company to celebrate their nuptials; for it's customary, in every town, for all the inhabitants to dine at a wedding with out invitation: For they value their pleasure at such a rate, and bear such an affection to idleness, that they would run the hazard of death or ruin, rather than let slip so merry a holy-day."

MANUFACTURE OF ROSIN OIL AT THE SOUTH.

The New Orleans Bulletin in an interesting paper upon this subject says: Its adaptation to the various purposes for which oils are required having been demonstrated, and its sources being abundant—must become an article of great and increasing commercial value. It derives augmented importance from the fact that it can be made and warranted fit for the various purposes before mentioned at considerable less cost—say from fifteen to twenty-five per cent—than the oils now in use, while it will not be a whit inferior in any respect.

To introduce this important article into the commerce of the world, a Company has been formed under the title of the Southern Oil Company, which has purchased the right from the inventor (Robbins) for five Southern States, and has erected, or is now erecting, extensive works in Mobile for its manufacture, which it is expected will be in operation in about a month.

It will be recollected that the rosin from which this oil is made is now thrown away as worthless; that is, it will not pay the cost of hauling it to market even if there were an extensive demand for it, which there is not. Now let us see what this residuum of turpentine, which is now of no value, will be worthy by the new process of converting it into oils. One barrel of common rosin will produce about eighteen gallons of oil, at say 40 cents per gallon as the first cost..... \$7 20
Four gallons naptha at 20 cents..... 80
Five gallons pitch (residuum) at 6 cents..... 30

\$8 30

Thus converting a worthless barrel of rosin into an article of prime necessity of the value of eight dollars and thirty cents!

Further, a barrel of crude turpentine will yield by this new process the same amount of spirits of turpentine now obtained by distillation, and in addition:

Fourteen gallons oil worth..... \$5 60
Three gallons naptha worth..... 60

\$6 20

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN INDIA.

The following facts will be interesting at this time. In 1600 Queen Elizabeth incorporated a company of merchants, with the exclusive privilege of trading to the East Indies and places beyond the Cape of Good Hope. The English established themselves at Bombay and Calcutta. From 1745 to 1760 there was almost constant fighting between the French and English in India, as elsewhere, and then the French were expelled—since which the British in India have quietly absorbed territory and suppressed the native governments. The extreme length of India from north to south, is 1,820 miles, and its breadth, in its widest part, is nearly the same. The total area of India is 1,399,443 miles, and its population, as ascertained by the best authorities, is 172,399,235.

Extent and divisions of the British Possessions.

	Sq. miles.	Population.
Bengal	235,626	41,186,521
Sengor and Nerbudda.....	17,542	2,143,599
Punjaub and Nerbudda.....	78,447	9,153,499
Setlex	4,659	2,314,960
Nangpore.....	76,440	4,650,000
Pegu.....	32,350	540,180
Madras.....	132,000	25,301,528
Bombay.....	120,000	11,109,067
Northwestern Provinces.....	85,651	30,872,766
	782,683	125,000,000

Of the remaining 516,760 square miles, containing 48,000,000 inhabitants, a portion is occupied by Oude and Mysore, is under the control of British officials, in whose hands, indeed, reside all the substantial powers of government. The gross revenues of the British Government in India were, in 1850, about \$28,000,000, the net revenue \$21,696,000, the surplus of the payment of all current charges only \$325,000.

COMMERCIAL MOVEMENTS OF MOBILE.

The Advertiser and News finds occasion, at the close of the last commercial year, (September 1, 1857,) to compliment the citizens of Mobile upon their growing prosperity.

"Real estate has continued to command high prices, several new business houses have been opened, new enterprises have been commenced under flattering auspices, and others will soon be got under way, and every appearance indicates that Mobile is rapidly advancing in wealth and prosperity. One firm in this city, Messrs. Pomeroy & Marshall, have now in successful operation, a short distance from the city, a tannery and factory for the manufacture of russet brogans, which are of superior quality, and at as low prices as those brought from the North; two or three extensive grist and several saw mills are constantly running; a company for the manufacture of Rosin oil, with a large capital, has been organized, and are now erecting an extensive factory down town, and movements are on foot for the erection of a paper mill, all of which will tend to direct capi-

tal to our city, and to divert it from the channels it has heretofore sought. The steamboat building business is, like all others, calculated to develop the resources of our city and State, also increasing, and we think the time not far distant when we shall be able to supply ourselves with everything we need, without going from home for it. Messrs. Meahers, Messrs. Baldwin, Murray & Co., and the Dry Dock Company, have each launched from their yards a fine steamboat, of large capacity, and are so situated that they can compete successfully, either in building or in repairing vessels of any size, with any builders on the Gulf or Western rivers."

It tells us, also, that the *Great Northern Railroad* is being vigorously prosecuted. The work of the track has progressed nearly to the Tennessee line from Columbus, Kentucky; and from Macon, Mississippi, it has progressed to Brookville on a rapid advance north. A recent contract with Mr. Peabody, of London, provides for the delivery of the remainder of the iron necessary to complete the road.

The lumber business of Mobile shows an export last season of 1,798 spars and masts, 2,968 tons of hewn timber, and \$163,475 of timber, spars, &c. The other statistics are as follows:

	Sawed lumber, Feet.	Value of other lumber.	Total value.		Sawed lumber, Feet.	Value of other lumber.	Total value.
Falmouth.....	108,000	\$2,880	\$40,320	Ministidan.....	50,000	500
Liverpool.....	7,177	Honduras.....	15,000	120
Toulon.....	26,400	8,344	29,304	Remedios.....	40,000	475
Cherbourg.....	76,000	1,450	24,820	Matanzas.....	645,800	7,384
Bordeaux.....	2,442	7,722	Grimsby, (Eng.)	51,500	670
L'Orient.....	82,200	1,611	16,826	Hayti.....	50,000	1,301
Rochefort.....	81,000	1,130	25,937	Tampico.....	279,000	8,010
Brest.....	400	12,550	Sagua la Grande.....	965,000	11,206
Ferrol, (Spain.)	400	9,100	San'to de Cuba.....	30,000	870
Cardenas.....	425,000	4,895				
Laguna.....	438,700	4,954	Total Foreign	8,498,700	\$18,695	\$274,710
Havana.....	5,022,000	54,237				
Barcelona.....	15,000	2,000	Boston.....	75,000	1,000
Cienfuegos.....	170,000	Greenport, L. I.	60,000	700

The *Foreign Imports* at Mobile were—

	Amount.	Duty.
1856.....	\$934,889	\$180,656
1855.....	441,529	62,282
1854.....	889,622	184,873

The *Foreign Exports* were, in American vessels, \$10,645,213; in American and foreign—

1856.....	\$19,917,387
1855.....	16,813,005
1854.....	15,952,221

More remunerative prices have been received for *Naval Stores*, and hence the receipts are large. A company has been organized in Mobile for the manufacture of Rosin oil. The following are the receipts for several years:

	BARRELS.			
	1856-'57.	1855-'56.	1854-'55.	1853-'54.
Spirits of Turpentine..	7,790	6,403	6,883	4,528
Rosin	12,481	8,625	17,718	14,349
Pitch.....	2,390	2,965	1,186	986
Tar.....	1,130	682	846	528

Native coal is now largely introduced at Mobile, and is driving out the English and Northern. The Shelby Coal Company have now completed arrangements by which they will in future be enabled to keep our market continually supplied, and at the uniform rate of \$8 per ton from the yard. The coal burns freely, is cheaper, and not inferior to the best English cannel, produces little sut or cinder, and where known is greatly preferred.

ENTRIES AND CLEARANCES OF VESSELS.

Table of Entries and Clearances of Vessels at the Port of Mobile, (exclusive of Steamers and other craft navigating the Rivers and Bay,) for the year ending June 30th, 1857.

CHARACTER.	ENTRIES.			CLEARANCES.		
	Vessels.	Tons.	Crew.	Vessels.	Tons.	Crew.
American...	92	60,563	2,034	187	111,866	3,091
Foreign...	58	49,756	1,413	52	44,381	1,258
Coastwise...	556	247,084	9,789	217	71,613	2,254
Total	706	357,403	13,236	456	227,860	6,603

Exports of Cotton to Foreign Ports, with the Weight and Value attached, for the year ending August 31, 1857.

	Bales.	Pounds.	Value.
G. Britain in American vessels...	128,712	64,581,433	\$8,378,741
Do. in British do.	81,148	41,252,609	5,201,531
Do. in Swedish do.	1,371	696,486	83,937
Total to Great Britain.....	211,281	106,480,532	\$13,664,215
France, in American vessels.....	84,695	42,789,533	\$5,294,014
Do. in Sardinian do.	145	72,994	9,614
Total to France.....	84,840	42,862,527	\$5,303,628
Belgium	2,297	1,157,501	\$151,424
Sweden	2,068	1,038,260	122,825
Hamburg	2,545	1,305,476	166,675
Russia	8,190	4,145,050	545,934
Holland	1,470	750,544	91,136
Denmark.....	1,123	570,838	74,200
Spain.....	1,225	611,112	86,454
Total to other Foreign Ports ..	18,918	9,578,781	1,238,648
Total Foreign.....	314,989	158,921,840	\$20,206,491

Comparative Imports of the following Staple Articles into this Port for six years.

ARTICLES.	1856-'57.	1855-'56.	1854-'55.	1853-'54.	1852-'53.	1851-'52.
Bagging, pieces..	16,460	23,176	23,938	21,063	22,327	17,762
Bale Rope, coils..	32,731	38,399	31,597	21,562	24,107	16,585
Bacon, hhds.....	21,415	12,626	16,929	17,744	13,227	11,500
Coffee, sacks.....	32,636	33,556	23,936	20,678	34,503	28,538
Corn, sacks.....	143,432	43,436	101,225	189,029	92,104	83,380
Flour, bbls.....	73,580	59,073	41,920	62,057	64,444	74,329
Hay, bales.....	31,998	13,556	14,858	25,101	22,830	26,852
Lard, kegs.....	14,108	16,692	22,083	15,738	22,389	22,481
Lime, bbls.....	23,100	6,790	14,623	11,953	21,252	31,027
Molasses, bbls....	7,607	17,695	29,330	30,799	19,681	18,195
Oats, sacks.....	29,895	88,912	83,939	60,426	48,395	20,995
Potatoes, bbls....	17,695	19,308	12,099	23,261	21,344	22,014
Pork, bbls.....	13,602	19,944	12,446	14,700	15,841	15,589
Rice, bbls.....	2,893	1,961	11,421	2,349	1,399	1,491
Salt, sacks.....	172,015	234,321	139,901	169,631	123,266	154,351
Sugar, hhds.....	6,183	7,570	7,431	8,398	8,352	6,083
Whiskey, bbls....	31,244	25,808	19,702	24,695	21,754	15,597

Cotton Crop of South Alabama for 28 years.

Years.	Bales.	An. Inc.	An. De.	Years.	Bales.	An. Inc.	An. De.
1830....	102,684	22,355	1844....	468,126	14,505
1831....	113,075	10,391	1845....	517,550	49,424
1832....	125,605	12,530	1846....	421,669	95,881
1833....	129,366	3,761	1847....	322,516	69,153
1834....	149,513	20,147	1848....	438,324	115,808
1835....	197,847	48,334	1849....	517,846	79,522
1836....	237,690	39,743	1850....	350,297	167,549
1837....	232,685	4,905	1851....	451,697	101,400
1838....	309,807	77,122	1852....	549,772	98,076
1839....	251,742	58,065	1853....	546,514	3,258
1840....	445,725	193,983	1854....	538,110	8,404
1841....	317,642	126,083	1855....	454,595	83,515
1842....	318,315	673	1856....	659,738	205,143
1843....	482,631	164,316	1857....	503,177	156,561

BUSINESS OF CINCINNATI.

The annual statement reported to the Chamber of Commerce shows the value of imports into Cincinnati, during the past year, to have been \$77,090,148, and the exports \$55,642,171. But these figures do not exhibit the full business; it is thought that ten per cent. should be added to the imports, and twenty-five per cent to the exports, to reach the true amounts. The great Pork emporium is declared to be the greatest whiskey market in the world. The annual distillation in the city and vicinity, reaches about *half a million* of barrels, consuming, in this way, *eight million* bushels of corn and other grains. The price ranged, during the year, from 20½ to 33 cents per gallon. The export of Alcohol was 44,000 barrels.

In Provisions a profitable business has been done. The heavy shipments overstocked the English market, so that large return shipments are now made from Liverpool to New York, chiefly of box meats. The

indications are that a small business for the English market will be done the coming season.

The number of hogs packed in the city, the last year, was 344,512, a falling off from the previous year of 60,884. The average yield of lard was 24 pounds less per hog than last year. Thirty-seven houses are engaged in this business—a diminution of five from last year.

In Flour a larger business has been done during the last two years than since 1848. The exports for these two years amount to about one million barrels. As a Wheat market Cincinnati is expected to take a prominent place, when put in connection with the Southern system of railroads. In 1856 the imports exceeded one million of bushels. Rye is increasingly used for distillation, and the demand rapidly increases. Barley shows a rapid increase, also, the importations being four times as large as ten years since. They amount, this year, to 381,060 bushels.

The Iron business is stated to be in a healthy condition. There are thirty-seven iron foundries and machine shops; twelve rolling-mills, and eight establishments for stoves and hollow-ware. The exports of manufactured iron have steadily increased.

As a Tobacco market Cincinnati seems to be increasing in importance. The opening of communications with Southern Kentucky and Tennessee will hasten this, and render the city a leading Tobacco market for the West.

WHERE THE BRITISH COTTON GOODS GO.

Tabular statement showing the quantities and values of Cotton Manufactures exported from Great Britain to all countries, respectively, during the first five months of 1856 and 1857.

COUNTRIES.	1856.		1857.	
	Quantities, yards.	Values.	Quantities, yards.	Values.
Hanse Towns	29,834,072	\$2,518,410	21,308,685	\$2,056,000
Holland	17,441,628	1,435,755	15,971,419	1,370,275
Portugal and Islands ..	18,997,738	1,172,970	20,184,384	1,304,585
Turkey	69,935,254	4,282,903	36,498,907	4,875,040
Syria and Palestine ...	21,243,412	1,453,370	22,038,334	1,453,080
Egypt	22,939,581	1,270,355	25,259,546	1,516,885
United States	72,550,442	6,729,275	91,233,553	7,936,880
For. West Indies	15,843,628	1,160,225	24,033,895	1,840,131
Brazil	43,491,588	2,835,755	74,886,130	5,335,875
Buenos Ayres	7,926,307	550,915	11,309,149	857,095
Chili	15,921,883	1,129,080	13,153,888	991,230
Peru	11,554,360	882,500	9,668,490	795,305
China	54,314,958	3,032,290	30,923,557	1,947,185
Java	17,936,520	1,216,015	10,882,913	821,825
Gibraltar	14,820,850	950,825	6,666,872	459,115
British North America.	10,492,397	876,175	11,710,368	986,275
British West Indies ..	17,238,417	1,106,820	16,666,515	1,008,865
British East Indies ...	176,481,952	9,883,310	220,997,041	13,005,095
Australia	7,494,945	813,260	12,941,404	1,286,215
Other countries	123,944,149	9,160,615	143,957,216	10,926,175
Total	761,347,082	\$52,469,345	850,552,405	\$60,798,130

CENTRAL SOUTHERN UNIVERSITY.

POLITICAL AND EDUCATIONAL NECESSITY FOR ITS ESTABLISHMENT.

The author of the present article, which will be followed by another, is not satisfied with the comparatively moderate aims, and necessarily (though to but a limited extent) sectarian character of the great University proposed to be established in connection with the Southern Episcopal church, and to which reference has occasionally been had in the pages of the Review. Without interfering with the plans and purposes of that institution, which is entitled to the greatest success, and seems to involve all the elements necessary to secure it very soon, he rises to a higher stand point, and argues that the Southern people, through individual, municipal, and State action, comprising all denominations, orthodox, and heterodox, Jew, and Gentile should move with one accord to secure for our political as well intellectual redemption and development, at some advantageous point, a vast Central University towards which should radiate to be afterwards condensed, intensified, and reflected the emanations of our municipal and State schools, academies, and colleges. The idea is certainly a grand one, and we cheerfully give him an opportunity to work it out. Whilst there may be differences of opinion in relation to the details of organization and the financial questions which arise, in the main subject itself, it would seem that among the Southern people there should be little or none. As early as 1847 we advanced some views upon University instruction at the South, and our wants in this particular which could well be reproduced, did space admit, in connection with the present article.—(See Review, Vol. 3, pp. 264 and 311—EDITOR.)

THE opinion that it is vitally important to the interests and general welfare of the South, for the slaveholding States to endow and organize as speedily as possible a great Central Southern University seems to be rapidly gaining ground. Practical and experienced educators, wise statesmen, and patriotic citizens of the South—men who are aware of the vast importance, political as well as social, of having the youth of a State, or of several States whose interests are identical, brought into close and frequent contact with each other, and educated together, are earnestly turning their attention to the subject. With the writer, the project has been a cherished one for several years; and in view of the necessity for speedy action, in the matter, and of the favorable opportunity which the present situation of affairs offers for bringing the subject prominently before the slaveholding States, as well as for the purpose of identifying himself with this, the most patriotic measure to which the last quarter of a century has given birth, and of contributing his mite towards crowning the movement with success, he takes the liberty to address the following remarks to the friends of the undertaking throughout the South generally.

The project for the establishment of a Central Southern University will be considered under four heads 1st. Its necessity. 2^d. The ways and means for raising funds sufficient to place it upon a respectable footing at once, and to endow it in perpetuity. 3^d. Its location. 4th. Its organization.

These four particulars appear to cover the entire ground of discussion; and provided it can be shown that there really does exist a necessity for the establishment of such a university, that funds can be raised for erecting the necessary buildings, for purchasing an extensive library, the requisite apparatus, and all other fixtures, and for endowing it in perpetuity, without adding anything to the burdens of the people. That such a method can be devised for determining the site of the university as to prevent all contentions, and to silence all jarring interests. It does seem that every patriotic citizen of the South should, with alacrity, number himself among the friends and supporters of the movement. That there does exist a *political* necessity for the establishment of an institution of learning of the character alluded to—an institution around which shall cluster the hopes and the pride of the South, the teachings of which shall be thoroughly Southern, one pledged to the defence and perpetuation of that form of civilization peculiar to the slaveholding States, will not, perhaps, be questioned, although some may entertain doubts as to the pressure of that necessity. The inquiry, whence arose the necessity, is somewhat foreign to the matter at present in hand. It is sufficient for the South to know that the necessity *actually* exists, and a few remarks here may serve to set it forth in a stronger light.

If the Federal School, the Military Academy at West Point, be excepted, there cannot be found within the limits of the Union a single institution of learning which has the least pretensions to the claim of nationality. There is not one which will serve as a common rallying ground for the various sections of the country. They are, as a general rule, pledged, either directly or indirectly, to the promulgation of peculiar views in politics or religion, and cannot, therefore, command the confidence and support of the whole country. Many of great distinction, and wielding immense influence, have boldly and openly arrayed themselves on the abolition or anti-slavery side of the, to us, great political and social question of the day. Hourly are they poisoning the minds of thousands of our fellow-citizens against us, teaching that resistance to the laws of the Constitution is obedience to God. And grave professors have gone so far as to give aid and encouragement to robbers and assassins—have placed arms in their hands, and appealed to them by all they hold most sacred to be diligent in using them

against—whom? Those who have trampled under foot the Constitution and the laws? Those whom all good men declare to be traitors and outlaws? No, but against their fellow-citizens—against those who have always been noted for their zealous obedience to law—who have always given the Government a most hearty support, and willingly spent more than their just proportion of blood and treasure in defence of the rights and honor of the whole country, but who have never asked more than equality in the Union.

This hostility on the part of numerous institutions of learning at the North, to the domestic institutions of the South, is founded upon a much more wide-spread and deeply-seated feeling of hostility on the part of all ranks and classes of people in the hireling States. Southerners have been murdered whilst peacefully endeavoring to maintain their rights and secure their property. Federal officers have been attacked because they honestly endeavored to enforce the laws, and at least one has been butchered because he was true to his oath and his country. Inflammatory and seditious pamphlets have been circulated among the slaves, instigating them to insurrection and revolt. They are hourly called upon to murder their masters, to burn their houses. Theft, robbery, arson, perjury, rape, murder, have been erased from the list of crimes and enrolled among the virtues, provided they be directed against slaveholders. So far has fanaticism gone that a miserable negro thief, who was sentenced to the Maryland penitentiary for stealing slaves and died there, has been apotheosized. His name has been placed high on the list of worthies and martyrs; and, to hand down his name to posterity, a monument has been erected to his memory at Mt. Auburn. This feeling of hostility against the South, combined with a systematic and intentional misrepresentation of her domestic institutions, pervades, as already remarked, all classes. It is found on the bench, at the bar, in the pulpit, in the legislature, in the gubernatorial chair, around the fire-side, in the school-house, in the college, in the literature and school-books of the North. It is found everywhere. Open a newspaper, it is there. Hear a sermon, it is there. Read a poem, it is there. From their earliest infancy men and women are taught to fear and to execrate the South. From the lazy and filthy negresses who are occasionally seen sauntering in the streets of Boston, through Abby Folsom up to Mrs. Uncle Tom, the goddess of negrodom and negrophilists, there is a oneness, a congeniality of feeling, so far as fear of and hostility to the South are concerned, on the part of the women at the North, which, with all the other circumstances of the case, precludes the possibility of the restoration of anything like harmony and good

feeling between the hireling and slave States. It is absurd to suppose that the people of the North will ever unsay what they have said, undo what they have done, or retrace their steps in any particular whatever. They have gone too far. They have persisted in saying what they know to be false, and in doing what they know to be ungenerous and unjust, until they have come at last either to believe what they say and do to be true and just, or have become wedded to falsehood and injustice. The difficulty between the South and the North can never arrive at a peaceable settlement. The supreme and ultimate arbiter in the dispute now pending between them must be the sword. To that complexion it must come at last. The first step then which the South should take in preparing for the great contest ahead of her, is to secure harmony at home. "The union of the South for the sake of the South" should be the sentiment of every patriotic son and daughter of the South, and each should endeavor to contribute his or her mite towards gaining so desirable an end. The safety of the South, the integrity of the South, not the permanence of the Union, should be regarded as the "paramount political good." No true Southerner, no loyal son of the South can possibly desire the continuance of the Union *as it is*. To secure her rights, and to guard her interests, the South must be a *unit*. The petty rivalries and jealousies which have existed between the slaveholding States must cease. Every effort must be made to soothe and unite, not to divide. To bring about complete harmony and unity of feeling among the slaveholding States is, I repeat, the paramount necessity of the present time. And the question arises, how is that to be done? In order for any set of men to be harmonious and united, they must understand each other, and to understand each other their intercourse must be free and frequent. This much for ordinary harmony and union; but in order to secure unity and concert of action on great political questions which affect large bodies of men, scattered over many degrees of latitude and longitude, there must be on their part, in addition to everything else, a *community of interest*. And the greater the outward pressure directed against this common interest, the stronger, as a general rule, will be the bonds of union formed to resist that pressure. How do these conditions apply to the South? By the South is meant, politically speaking, the following fourteen States, viz: Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Tennessee, Kentucky, Arkansas, and Missouri. Delaware and New Jersey have each a few slaves, but the number is so small—Delaware has only 2,290, and New Jersey 236—that I have not reckoned them among the slaveholding States, or

regarded them as part and parcel of the South. They are in what may be called a transition state, and will soon belong, body and soul, to the North. There are then, in this Confederacy, fourteen slaveholding States, two nominally slaveholding, and fifteen hireling States, in which black slavery is prohibited by law. These fifteen hireling States, together with all the rest of North America, except the slaveholding States mentioned, and more than one-half of South America, reinforced and sustained by England, France, and most of the other nations of Europe, have openly declared themselves against American slavery, and may be said to be engaged in a crusade against our domestic institutions. The African slave-trade has been denounced as piracy, not only by several European powers, but by the United States. From the beginning of the present century up to this time the influence of the Government has been against the South, and for fifteen years this Government has kept a fleet on the African coast for the express purpose (acting in conjunction with England and France) of suppressing the traffic in slaves, and for preventing their importation into America. And at least three-fourths of the expense of maintaining this fleet have been paid by the South. Again, every effort has been made in Europe and America to influence public opinion against slavery. The fears of masters have been appealed to, and no exertions spared to instigate the negroes to bloody revolt, and to induce them to re-enact the scenes of San Domingo. It is evident from the foregoing that an outward pressure against the great common interest of the South does exist—a pressure which increases daily in force and intensity, but whose effects thus far have been to strengthen slavery in the fourteen States mentioned, and to place the institution on more commanding grounds—results the very reverse of those intended by the originators of the movement.

There exist then, two of the conditions necessary to harmonious and united action on the part of the South, a great common interest, and a tremendous outward pressure directed against that interest. How stands the other? The travelling facilities of the present day have brought the people of the South into closer and more frequent contact with each other, have removed many prejudices and petty rivalries, and done much to unite and draw nearer together those who are interested in the prosperity and perpetuation of slavery. The network of railroads ramifying all over the South, and which has been built chiefly by slave labor, has served to develop the almost inexhaustible resources of this section of the country, and awakened the people of the South to a sense of their own power and greatness. Moreover, the people of the South have been

brought nearer together and more frequently into contact with each other. The result of this free and frequent intercourse is, that the people of the slaveholding States are more closely united, more thoroughly unanimous, more indented in feeling and in interest than ever the people of this Confederacy have been since the war of the Revolution. But one thing more is needed. It is necessary for the young men of the South—those who are to be our future legislators and statesmen—the leaders of our armies and senates—to become acquainted with each other, to be educated together. The union of the South must be strengthened by the bonds of personal friendship, by social and intimate intercourse. In a word, the people of the South must *know* each other in the fullest sense of the word. Any one can convince himself, by the least observation, of the powerful influence exerted upon the career of our public men by the associations and friendships formed during their educational course. In fact, they are important to the successful prosecution of almost any avocation in life; and it is no unfrequent occurrence to hear a father say, desiring to prepare my son for such a course in life, I intend to educate him at such a college, for there he will be more apt to form those associations and friendships which will be most useful to him in his future career."

The educational facilities of the South offer no center of attraction tending to draw together the young men from the various slaveholding States; and of all the various colleges and institutions of learning in our midst, many of which, are of the most deserving character, there is but *one* which appears to look beyond the educational wants of the State in which it is located, and which has made provision on a scale at all commensurate with its importance, for the thorough education of the youth of other States as well as of those at home. Allusion of course is made to the University of Virginia; and I speak of it with pride, for it is not only the first institution of learning in point of excellence in the South, but it is probably superior to any other in the Union. But the University of Virginia is not sufficiently Southern, sufficiently central, sufficiently cottonized to become the great educational center of the South. And in saying this, I do not intend to cast any imputation on the loyalty of the people of Virginia to the South, or to impugn the loyalty of the University itself. Far be any such intention from me. Having resided sometime in Virginia, I am prepared to place a high estimate on the noble chivalrous Southern character of her sons, and having been a student at the University, I can bear testimony to the efficiency of its organization as far as it goes, to the distinguished ability of the professors, to the gentlemanly conduct and high bearing

of the students, and to their thoroughly Southern tone of character. To Prof. Bledsoe the South owes a debt of gratitude for his work on "Liberty and Slavery," a work which should be in the hands of every Southern student as a *text-book*; and by his act the University of Virginia has been arrayed in opposition to the Abolition institutions of the North. Prof. Smith, of Wm. and Mary's College, and others are equally deserving of the thanks of the South for the noble stand which they have taken in defence of her domestic institutions. And it is chiefly to the efforts of these gentlemen, and others, throughout the South that we are indebted for the commanding position which we now occupy in reference to negro slavery.

But a University of the character of the one for whose establishment we are laboring, one destined to be the fountain of light and honor to the South, the source of her prosperity, the center and support of her peculiar form of civilization, the great central intellectual light of the South, whose rays shall radiate over the entire land, and illuminate every nook and corner, and around which the other institutions of learning shall circle as planets round their central sun, should be located in the *very heart* of the South. Should be removed as far as possible from every malign influence which may be brought to bear upon it, threatening its corruption. As the great fortress and stronghold of the South it should not be located near the confines of her empire, on the outskirts of her civilization, but should occupy the most impregnable position within her borders. The *political center* of the South is the proper location for such an institution. I will conclude the argument with regard to the political necessity for the establishment of the University, by quoting the introductory clauses of "an act for the more complete establishment of a public seat of learning in this State, (Georgia.) Approved January 27, 1785" for the purpose of showing the sentiments of our sires with respect to home education. And I doubt not, that the same sentiments will be found in the acts establishing the various State institutions of learning in the different States.

"As it is the distinguishing happiness of free governments that civil order should be the result of choice and not necessity, and the common wishes of the people become the laws of the land, their public prosperity, and even existence, very much depends upon suitably forming the minds and morals of their citizens. When the minds of the people in general are viciously disposed and unprincipled, and their conduct disorderly, a free government will be attended with greater confusions, and evils more horrid than the wild uncultivated state of nature. It can only be happy where the public principles and opinions are properly directed, and their manners regulated. This is an influence beyond the stretch of laws and punishments, and can be claimed only by religion and education. It should, therefore, be among the first objects of those who wish well to the national prosperity, to encourage and support the principles of religion and morality, and early to place the youth under the forming hand of society, that by instruction they may be moulded to the love of virtue and good order.

Sending them abroad to other countries for their education will not answer these purposes, is too humiliating an acknowledgement of the ignorance and inferiority of our own, and will always be the cause of so great foreign attachments, that upon principles of policy it is inadmissible. This country, in the times of our common danger and distress, found such security in the principles and abilities which wise regulations had before established in the minds of our countrymen, that our present happiness, joined to the pleasing prospects, should conspire to make us feel ourselves under the strongest obligations to form the youth, the rising hope of the land, to render the like glorious and essential services to our country."

If the Georgians of '85 discovered that foreign education tinctured the minds of their sons with disloyalty to their home institutions, how much more apt is that result to flow from the education of the young men of the South in abolition and European institutions of learning at the present day. Southerners must be educated as Southerners, as slaveholders, and be taught to support and defend the institution of slavery, and all the rights of the South, at all times and in all places. This education can be had no where else than in the South, and no where so thoroughly imparted as in an institution organized expressly for that purpose. The institutions of Lycurgus would never have been established had the Spartan youth been sent to Athens for their education. And no people can expect to retain their domestic peculiarities and institutions, when in diametrical opposition to those of most other nations, unless they will keep their sons at home, and educate them in those peculiarities, teaching them to defend and perpetuate their institutions at all hazards and costs.

But does there not exist an *educational* as well as a *political* necessity for the establishment of such a university? Let us see. According to the Census of 1850 there were in the fourteen slaveholding States one hundred and twenty colleges, with an aggregate of seven hundred and thirty-seven teachers, and twelve thousand and ninety-eight students. In the Census Report the word *college* is defined to be any institution empowered to grant degrees. The number given above embraces, then, all the colleges in the South—male and female—literary, medical, theological, military, and legal. The theological, military, and law schools are not usually dignified with the name of colleges, but as they confer diplomas, they come under the definition employed. Not more than three-fourths of these, or ninety, can be claimed as male colleges; but assuming that they are all male colleges, and that none are professional schools, I wish to show how utterly inadequate they are to meet the educational wants of the people. According to the Census of 1850—and I will here state that all the statistics presented in this paper are from the "Compendium of United States Census" of 1850, prepared by Mr. De Bow, unless the contrary is distinctly specified—the number of white

inhabitants of the Southern States is 6,113,308. The number of fighting men is usually estimated at about one-fifth of the population. That gives 1,222,661 fighting men. Of these, at least one-fourth are of an age suitable for going to college. Hence, 305,133 young of the South should be at college. But of these, not more than one-fifth, perhaps, are able to go. There are then, in the South, 61,026 young men who not only *should* be at college, but who are *able* to go. This may appear to be a large estimate, but to those who are acquainted with the South it will not, I think, seem *too large*. The number of colleges in the South must be largely increased in order that so numerous a body of young men may be accommodated; and this consideration, together with another to be given directly, will be sufficient to prevent any hostility on the part of those institutions already established against the one proposed to be organized. Indeed, it may be stated as a general rule, that in proportion as the facilities for education are multiplied, so will increase the number of those who will avail themselves of the advantages placed in their reach. And each new institution of learning that is established should not be regarded as a *rival* by its elders, but as a co-worker in the cause of education and refinement, and as developing and bringing to light new material which could not otherwise have been reached. Hence, when judiciously located, there is no antagonism of interest between educational establishments.

But this *educational necessity* will be found to exist in a greater degree when the superficial character of the present system of collegiate education is considered, and the cheap estimate which is placed nowadays upon a diploma or a degree. What is the meaning of a diploma in this country? Is it regarded as a certificate of scholarship, a reward of merit? However highly deserved by some, the conferring of degrees is, as a general rule, absolutely meaningless so far as its original intention is concerned, and it simply signifies that the recipient has paid certain fees, remained a certain time at college, and behaved himself tolerably well whilst a student. Our system of education is notoriously defective, our standard too low. The education of our young men is regarded as completed when it has, in many respects, just begun; and they are turned out of college, many of them knowing less perhaps than when they entered, puffed up with the idea that they are educated, and are wiser in their own conceits "than seven men who can render a reason."

How can the standard of education be elevated in our midst? This is an important question, and deserves a careful and candid consideration. The remedy, as I conceive, is simply this—establish a Central University in the South, in which all the

States shall have a direct and immediate interest, organize it upon the most extensive scale, the most thorough and comprehensive basis; let merit and scholarship, not money and time, be the means by which degrees may be obtained; and let the course of study be so complete and thorough, that the various colleges may hold to it the same relation which the preparatory schools all over the country hold to them.

Our system of education will then be complete, and our young men have facilities placed in their reach which they can only obtain now by going abroad. I do not wish to be understood, however, as desiring to exclude from the University those who have not taken a collegiate course. Its privileges should be open to all, and merit made the only criterion in judging of a student's qualification for a degree. No honorary degrees should be conferred. So indiscriminately have they been given that their bestowal serves only to make donors and recipients ridiculous in the eyes of all reflecting men. The idea that the Faculty of a College can make a man a Master of Arts, a Doctor of Divinity, or any thing else, by a mere strip of parchment, resting at the same time, as they usually do, in the most complete and indifferent state of ignorance with regard to the candidate's qualifications, is absurd in the extreme. And yet, how often it is done!

I trust that no remarks which I have made with regard to our collegiate system of education will be misconstrued. I am no enemy of colleges, but only a foe to their faults. And as long as I continue an uncompromising foe to such faults, I expect to be regarded as a warm friend to those noble institutions of learning by all who are wise in head and good in heart. A few more words and I will be done with this part of my subject. In several of the Southern States there are institutions of learning supported by the State governments which are called universities, and also several denominational schools which go by the same name. They are universities in name only, and not in fact. The name has been so abused, or misused in America, that we hardly know what is a university. And I will here add, that under existing circumstances, there is not perhaps a single State in the South which is able to organize, endow, and keep in active operation a university proper. It is seriously agitated, however in South Carolina and Georgia, and possibly in other States also, to convert their State Colleges into universities. Such a step on the part of those States will be suicidal in the extreme, so far as their educational interests are concerned, will cripple their resources, will be a direct, though unintentional, blow at the elevation of the standard of education in the South; and will contribute nothing towards establishing that harmony of feeling and unity

of action on the part of the South which is the great desideratum at the present time. These results will flow from such attempts because they will be abortive. A university proper will require for its support, the permanent patronage of from three to five or ten thousand students. The most sanguine advocates of the measures alluded to, do not, I presume, anticipate the attendance of more than five hundred. The revenue derived from their tuition will hardly exceed \$40,000; and when that amount is divided among a large corps of professors, the salary of each will be exceedingly small. My idea of what a university *should be*, will be given hereafter, and in the meantime, I will add that there are in the Union only two institutions of learning which approximate towards the state of being universities. I allude to Brown University and the University of Virginia. But even they may be regarded as only *embryo* universities. I desire to see the South establish something superior to them. The comparative success of those universities, and more particularly that of Virginia, has brought the university system into deserved favor. But the Southern States must recollect that the success of the University of Virginia has been mainly owing to the fact, that there are no similar institutions in the other States; and if each proceeds to set up its own university, they all must fail. Their expenditures will be wasted, the cause of education will not be prospered, our youths will still be dependent upon foreign institutions of learning; and, what is worse, the educational system of the South will tend to divide not unite, to produce discord and not harmony. Let those States reorganize their State colleges, enlarge the curriculum if necessary, graft upon the collegiate some of the features of the university system, endeavor to make their courses somewhat more practical, and be more exacting in their demands for graduation qualifications. These will be important steps, and steps taken in the right direction.

Again, each of two denominations of Christians at the South proposes to establish a Central Southern University. How many others will follow suit is not known, but it is probable that some will. The denominations alluded to are the Methodist Episcopal South, and the Protestant Episcopal. The two churches are *almost* one, so far as doctrine is concerned, but differ considerably in external forms and ceremonies. This difference however immaterial, however meaningless and unimportant, will be as great a bar to unity of action and fusion of interests on their part, as if they were separated as far as the east is from the west. The universities, when established, will be pledged, either directly or indirectly, to the maintenance and promulgation of peculiar religious views,

and cannot, therefore, command the confidence and support of the entire South. Other denominations will, as an act of self-defence, organize similar universities, and the educational system of the South will be as far as ever from producing unity and concert of action within her borders. And, as before, there will be no great center of attraction tending to draw together the young men of the South from all quarters. I am not opposed to the universities proposed to be established, only so far as their establishment will militate against the organization of the one suggested in this paper, and tend to whet the sword of sectarian controversy. The various denominations had better restrain their zeal for some time yet, and see if the States will not establish a great Central Southern University, and then encamp around it in their peculiar schools of divinity, according to a plan to be hereinafter mentioned.

In connection with the system of sectarian education, a rather dangerous dogma has been broached within the last two or three years. It is, that the function of teaching belongs exclusively to the Church. Could some simple rule of faith or set of articles be devised to which we could all subscribe, it might be possible to gain a general assent to the proposition. But so long as there is a diversity of religious sentiments, or men differ as to which is the *true* Church, so long will we be spared from the evils which will inevitably arise should education be bound hand and foot, and subject only to the Church. Education and religion should go hand in hand, but education should never be so much the slave of religion, or rather of religionists, that they may have it in their power to say, "thus far shalt thou go, but no further." The teachings of all history will surely be in vain should such an end be consummated in this country.

The numerous sectarian schools in the South have done much good, and if they can only be restrained from what appears to be their ultimate tendency—the propagation of sectarian differences and sectarian controversies, they will continue to be among the greatest blessings which the Church has conferred upon society. But Heaven forbid that the time should come when men will be educated to believe certain religious doctrines, whether true or false, simply because their fathers and teachers believe them. It is pleasing to indulge the hope that the time may not be far distant when the controversies which rage so bitterly between religious sects will be abandoned, and the Christian Church on earth become, like that in Heaven, one in doctrine, one in name.

Whether or not I have succeeded in establishing the proposition with regard to the necessity for the organization of a great Central Southern University, is for others to decide.

Abler pens will doubtless take it up and more thoroughly illuminate the subject. As for my part, I am satisfied. And in throwing out the preceding remarks for the consideration of others, I have but followed what appeared to me to be a simple dictate of duty. I am a Southerner—was born and raised in the South, and my destiny, whether for weal or woe, so far as this world is concerned, is indissolubly linked with that of the South. I desire to see my native land thrive and prosper in all the elements of power and greatness; and, above all things else, am anxious to see her released from that thralldom under which she now labors and groans. I do not contemplate disunion as a thing “lovely in itself,” but as a necessity; not as an end to be desired above all others, but as one to be preferred to dishonor and ruin. And I hesitate not to say that I am one of those who, in the assertion and maintenance of their rights, would rather “uproar the universal peace” than submit—tamely, quietly, slavishly submit to their infraction, their loss.

There are thousands in the South who cling to the Union with a devoted fondness, and venerate it as the workmanship of their fathers. They are true to the South, but confidently hope that she can maintain her rights in the Union. They regard with horror the very thought of disunion, but should they be convinced that the rights and honor of the South cannot be maintained in the Union, they would strike for their preservation out of it. This class may not approve of some of the conclusions which have been drawn in this article, and may, therefore, oppose the establishment of the university. They must know, however, that in order for the South to maintain her rights in the Union she must be united. If the South be divided she will be conquered in detail, and one by one the slaveholding States will sink into the embraces of Free-soilism, and be abandoned to all the horrors, and evils, and abominations which characterize free society in the North and in Europe, and which disgrace humanity. The establishment of the university has been proposed as a measure certain to produce, by its working, unity and concord of action on the part of the slaveholding States. The young men of the South will then assemble and drink pure and invigorating draughts from unpolluted fountains. They will meet together as brethren, and be educated in one common political faith, at one common *alma mater*. And when they return home to their native States they will not be a whit the less Kentuckians, or Georgians, or Texans, but more thorough Southerners. Can any one who has the interests of the South *at heart* object to the enterprise? Some will oppose it and denounce it as visionary, as dreamy, as chimerical. They, however, will be

found to consist of those who care nothing for the South, for the institution of slavery, for the superiority of the white over the black race, but whose only hope is to live at the expense of the public by drawing their support from the treasury. Let them be marked. They have always been opposed to the advancement of the South—to her material interests—to her greatness.

Could the Union be restored to what it was in the days of Washington, and the Government administered as under him, then would no one think of disunion. The fraternal feeling would be restored between the Northern and Southern States. But is that possible? Is there a single individual in the South who really, honestly, sconsientiously thinks in his "heart of hearts" that it is possible? Is there one? If there is, let him go the North, and there study Northern feeling and sentiment on the subject of slavery.

It is very possible that the strongest arguments for the necessity which exists for establishing the university have not been presented. No pretension is made to having exhausted the subject, and the hope is indulged that abler pens will take it up and bring more light to bear upon it. In another article will be presented the considerations relating to the location and organization of the university.

COMMERCE OF CHARLESTON, 1857.

The annual Statement, published at the office of the Courier, furnishes many interesting and instructive facts. It is, however, to be regretted that the liberal commercial spirit of Charleston does not prompt more full and complete reports than it is in the power of any journal to give. The Chamber of Commerce would do well to take the matter under its especial charge, as is done in N. York, St. Louis, Cincinnati, Buffalo, etc.

From Charleston 12,886 bushels of wheat were exported to Great Britain during the year (1856-'57) against 56,851 bushels last year, and 12,886 barrels flour against 5,722. The total exports, to all quarters, reached in 1856-'57, 243,144 bushels wheat, and 68,225 barrels flour, against 675,317 bushels wheat and 39,026 barrels flour last year.

Of Naval Stores the present year—

Exported to Great Britain.....	13,072 barrels.
“ France.....	2,150 “
“ North of Europe.....	3,038 “
“ South of Europe.....	2,828 “
“ West Indies.....	579 “
“ Coastwise.....	14,911 “
Total.....	36,038 “

Which is an increase of about two thousand barrels over last season.

Boxes of Copper ore exported the present season, 1,709—a considerable decrease from last year.

The export of rough Rice reached 120,653 bushels, against 131,163 last year. Of this export, about one-third was to France, one-sixth to Northern ports, and 54,484 to the North of Europe. The following are the statistics of Lumber:

To Great Britain	695,442 feet.
France	1,328,405 "
West Indies	2,511,313 "
North Europe	1,916,624 "
South Europe	1,357,478 "
Northern United States	9,389,509 "
Total, 1857	17,198,771 "
" 1856	14,903,240 "

Comparative Exports of Cotton (bales) and Rice (barrels) from the port of Charleston.

From September 1, 1856, to August 31, 1857. From September 1, 1855, to August 31, 1856.

EXPORTED TO	S. Island.	Upland.	Rice.	S. Island.	Upland.	Rice.
Liverpool	10,347	124,085	5,585	13,036	159,803	4,473
Scotland	89	2,822	3	89	4,983	4
Other British ports		1,538		89	2,532	1,223
Total Great Britain	10,436	128,440	5,588	13,214	167,318	5,700
Havre	6,091	23,610	2,798	5,509	75,685	3,404
Marseilles		200	83		1,355	1
Other Foreign ports		911	737		4,847	1,391
Total France	6,091	24,730	3,568	5,509	81,887	4,796
Holland		7,101	1,017		7,698	1,011
Belgium		2,995	3,184	42	2,753	2,054
North of Europe	54	18,146	4,397		39,234	5,154
Total North Europe	54	28,242	8,598	42	49,685	8,219
South of Europe		21,192	150		53,456	
West Indies, &c.			13,327			12,201
Total Foreign ports	16,581	212,604	91,270	18,765	352,246	30,916
Boston	124	22,050	10,998	231	8,827	7,375
Rhode Island, &c.	11	6,450	95	27	2,640	50
New York	6,770	103,831	42,417	9,020	95,738	54,395
Philadelphia	3	17,323	5,047	8	16,200	7,156
Baltimore & Norfolk		12,719	8,890		9,928	8,478
New Orleans, &c.			20,675			18,832
Other U. S. ports		168	1,580		118	563
Total coastwise	6,908	162,541	89,602	9,286	133,451	96,849
Grand Total	23,489	375,145	120,872	28,051	485,797	127,765

*Statement of Produce received at the South Carolina Railroad Depot,
down freight, for the year ending Sept. 1, 1857.*

1856.	Bales Cotton.	Bales Merch'ze.	Bushels Wheat.	Bushels Corn.	Barrels Flour.	Sacks Flour.	Barrels N. Stores.	Head Cattle.
Sept....	15,490	653	5,372	10,427	5,114	5,943	1,424	525
Oct....	80,531	1,079	3,703	6,961	4,054	4,513	1,237	950
Nov....	31,030	640	1,134	5,347	5,688	3,190	499	1,906
Dec....	50,788	974	3,345	1,236	9,167	14,617	1,621	1,425
Jan. 1857	49,247	969	3,258	11,502	11,285	13,145	802	1,722
February	38,343	1,159	13,902	8,874	6,017	5,875	1,142	875
March...	25,678	1,346	5,690	5,010	7,533	7,210	597	850
April...	14,147	1,068	3,394	1,015	2,597	5,108	1,395	538
May....	12,762	1,175	75	130	1,413	3,569	814	823
June....	10,504	1,296	11,324	1,276	3,687	9,908	906	400
July....	5,040	1,044	84,892	1,208	4,740	3,310	2,281	215
August..	2,711	879	244,304	1,318	8,256	9,860	1,174	65

Total... 316,271 12,285 385,393 54,304 69,551 84,248 13,842 10,293

There is a large quantity of sundries not embraced in this statement.

OUR FOREIGN IMMIGRATION.

THE report of the State Department giving the number of arrivals from foreign ports into the United States during the last year has just been issued by Mr. Flagg. It will be perceived that the number still declines. Of the whole arrivals in 1856, 24,160 were born in the United States, reducing the immigrants to 200,436. From England came 25,904; Ireland, 54,349; Germany, 63,807; from British America 14,331. Whole number of males, 135,308; females, 89,188. Died on the voyage 400. The report gives the countries in which the parties mean to reside, but it is of very little value, since the States of the Union are not distinguished. Cannot the returns be made more specific? Most of the immigrants can answer as to what particular State they are proceeding to. It seems that of the whole number 3,323 were for British America. For other quarters the numbers are insignificant; 11,105 were merchants; 9,801 mechanics; 24,722 farmers; 6,136 miners; 37,019 laborers; (not given more than half.)

Statement of the number of passengers arriving in the United States by sea from foreign countries, from September 30, 1843, to December 31, 1856.

Years.	Males.	Females.	Sex not stated.	Total.
From September 30, 1843, to September 30, 1844.....	48,897	35,867	84,764
Do.....1844.....do.....1845.....	60,179	49,311	1,406	119,896
Do.....1845.....do.....1846.....	90,974	66,773	897	158,649
Do.....1846.....do.....1847.....	130,167	99,385	990	229,482
Do.....1847.....do.....1848.....	136,138	92,883	473	229,488
Do.....1848.....do.....1849.....	179,256	119,915	512	299,683
Do.....1849.....do.....1850.....	200,904	113,892	1,038	315,384
Do.....1850, to December 31, 1850.....	89,292	27,107	181	65,570
From December 31, 1850.....do.....1851.....	245,017	163,745	66	408,828
Do.....1851.....do.....1852.....	235,791	160,174	1,438	397,343
Do.....1852.....do.....1853.....	236,732	164,173	72	400,989
Do.....1853.....do.....1854.....	234,887	175,587	460,474
Do.....1854.....do.....1855.....	140,181	90,283	12	230,476
Do.....1855.....do.....1856.....	135,908	89,188	224,496

Total..... 2,180,643 1,447,733 7,084 3,635,460

CLIMATE OF THE UNITED STATES.*

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS—PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY—SEVERE WINTERS—PARALLELS OF CLIMATE AND PRODUCTS—STATISTICS OF TEMPERATURE THROUGHOUT THE UNITED STATES—GREAT HURRICANES FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES—AMERICAN FORESTS—LIMITS AND PHENOMENA OF THE GROWTH OF INDIAN CORN, SUGAR, AND COTTON—SANITARY STATISTICS.

METEOROLOGICAL observations, it is well known, are of comparatively recent date. The facts which have been furnished by them; though quite extensive, have scarcely yet been combined for any practical purpose, or to inculcate any great general principles. There have been but few scientific treatises prepared for this purpose, and among these are the works of Dr. Forrey, and that of Lorin Blodget. The former made use of only such observations as were brought down to 1831, whilst the latter is enabled to combine also the more minute and accurate data which extend to the present day, collected not only on the Atlantic and lake coasts, but in the interior valley of the Mississippi and Missouri, and on the Western coasts, points which were but lately brought within the reach of settlement. Mr. Blodget's work has required the labors and investigations of many years in its preparation.

As an evidence of the utter ignorance of the ancients with regard to meteorological conditions, it may be remarked that Pliny enumerated in the moon's age eight critical days, and says, in regard to the winds, "there be certain caves and holes in the earth which breed wind, * * * into which, if you cast any matter of light weight, there ariseth presently a stormy tempest, &c." Even the important facts bearing upon the quantity of rain which falls, were only ascertained in the bold effort to disprove the universal theory, that "rivers and fountains were supplied from internal masses of water—arteries and veins of the sea, circulating the life-blood of the earth."

Although the facts are not yet sufficient to construct a very perfect system of climatology, much of great public value can be deduced, especially in regard to the correspondence in like latitudes and like geographical positions. Thus, for example, it is found that Vancouver Island, on our Pacific coast, is analogous in position to Great Britain (in like latitudes, and on

* Climatology of the United States, and of the temperate latitudes of the North American Continent, embracing a full comparison of these with the climatology of the temperate latitudes of Europe and Asia, and especially in regard to agriculture, sanitary investigations, and engineering, with isothermal and rain charts for each season, the extreme months, and the year, including a summary of the statistics of the meteorological observations in the United States, condensed from recent scientific and official publications, by Lorin Blodget author of several recent reports on American climatology; Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1857.

the same side of the continent.) Here exists the cool summer, the warm winter, and the general humidity. Russia, the North of Germany, the Black sea, and Baltic districts, have equivalents of general climate and geographical position with our interior and western regions between 47° and 58° north. The climates of Canada and Labrador afford no guide to judge of the climate of the interior and west coast in the same or even higher latitudes. The winter of Norfolk, Virginia, is that of Puget's Sound; that of Washington city nearly the same as Silka in 57° —the one ten degrees, and the other eighteen degrees of latitude of difference. These are important facts in determining the progress of settlement and the growth of States.

"In the greater part of the United States there is a regular curve of differences in the successive months of the year, as follows: January is coldest; February 2° to 4° warmer; March 8° to 10° warmer than February; April 10° warmer than March, and nearly at the mean for the spring, and also for the year; May 9° to 12° warmer than April; June 7° to 9° warmer than May; July 4° to 6° warmer than June; August 1° to 3° less than July; September 5° to 8° less than August; October 8° to 10° less than September, and near the mean for autumn and for the year; November 10° to 14° less than October; and December 10° to 15° less than November. This curve diminishes at the south and in the tropical and semi-tropical districts, and it is less on the Atlantic coast than in the interior; less sharp also about the great lakes, and increasing rapidly in its measures of difference west and north towards the interior. A central belt from Norfolk and Baltimore westward has a greater range of regular and irregular differences than the country north and east, which is generally colder."

The physical geography of the United States, in consequence of the very late and full explorations made under the direction of the Government, can now be very nearly completed, and Mr. Blodget has drawn upon them all in his interesting chapter upon this subject. Among the earliest of these Government surveys were those of Lewis and Clark, dispatched by Mr. Jefferson to seek, if possible, a water communication with the Northern Pacific. Lieutenant Pike, in 1805-'6 explored the upper Mississippi, the Arkansas, and the sources of the Rio Grande. Major Long, in 1819-'20-'23, was sent to the Rocky Mountains, and also to search for the sources of St. Peter's river. The surveys of Nicollet extended from 1836 to 1840, in which he was assisted by Lieutenant Fremont, and covered the regions of the upper Mississippi. The last named officer conducted three other surveys, one in 1842, to the Platte and Kansas rivers, the second in 1842-'3, beyond the Rocky Mountains, in which was discovered and defined the great basin, and the third in 1845-'6, through the great basin, entering California near Kern river. The surveys of Emory begun in 1846, and were mainly in New Mexico and Southern California. Stansbury surveyed the Great Salt Lake. The Pacific Railroad surveys, in 1853-'4-'5, complete upon

every line the knowledge of all of these Western regions except in unimportant particulars. A part of what remains will be accomplished by Lieutenant Ives, who has been lately dispatched to the Colorado of California.

In a chapter upon the climate of the United States, east of the Rocky Mountains, many general particulars are included, from which, a useful digest may be made. The winter of 1717 is noted as one of extreme cold, the snow having remained all over New England five or six feet deep. The winter of 1740-'41 in Europe and America was peculiarly frigid. In 1771 the Connecticut river was crossed on the ice with horses as late as the first of April. 1748-'66 and '72 were also noted for severity in the Southern States. In 1780 the most signal and severe depression of temperature occurred belonging to our history, except, perhaps, the winter of 1856. The Chesapeake was frozen solid from its head to the mouth of the Potomac; loaded carriages crossed at Annapolis. York river was similarly frozen. In New England, for six weeks, no snow melted. Troops crossed the Sound from New Jersey to Staten Island on the ice. Bayou St. John's, near New Orleans, was frozen, which did not occur again until 1814. The Delaware was frozen over for more than three months. The average depression in the Eastern United States was more than 50° from the mean. 1788 was very severe at the South. Other severe winters are named, viz: 1790, '92, '96, in different parts of the country. In 1800 snow fell three feet deep in parts of Georgia, and five inches in Florida. It extended to many parts of Louisiana. 1818 and 1831 were also notable. At the last date the Mississippi was frozen over for 130 miles below the Ohio, a circumstance before unknown; and at New Orleans ice formed strong enough to skate upon. In 1835 all the fruit trees of the South were destroyed, and nearly all of the surface of the United States, as observed, was below zero on the 8th of February, and in New York 40° below. 1843 and 1845-'6 were remarkable for severity at the South. At the last date snow and ice were abundant in New Orleans and Mississippi. In 1851-'2 snow fell in Texas, Mexico, and New Orleans, and the orange trees were killed in Carolina. The winter of 1856 was so remarkable that we will extract the minute and accurate account of it condensed into Mr. Blodget's volume.

"In the first three months of 1856 a still more severe degree of refrigeration occurred, which was central to the middle latitudes of the United States, disappearing at the north at about the 46th parallel. This was a reproduction of the winter of 1780 more nearly than any other, both in degree and in position. The district of the great lakes was but little affected, and the line of greatest severity was at the 35th to the 38th parallels. The tropical coasts of Central America were in some degree influenced, apparently rendering the winter a stormy season instead of one of the usual calmness belonging then to tropical

latitudes. While the middle and lower latitudes of both continents participated in the refrigeration, the higher latitudes of both the north of Canada and Labrador here and the north Baltic countries of Europe, Archangel and the high Atlantic coasts at Norway and the British Islands, were alike warmer than usual, particularly in December and January.

The following citations will show the measure of depression:

Washington.....	Jan. 10th, —10°	Mean of Jan. 11°·5 below the average.		
Philadelphia.....	" 10th, — 7	" 10.5	"	"
New York.....	" 9th, — 6	" 7.7	"	"
Buffalo.....	" — 4	" 9.4	"	"
Pittsburg.....	" —18	" ..	"	"
St. Louis.....	" 9th, —18	" 14.2	"	"
Chicago.....	" 10th, —30	" ..	"	"
Ontonagon, L. Sup...	" —18	" ..	"	"
Fort Snelling.....	" 9th, —26	" ..	"	"
Fort Gibson.....	" 29th, —15	" 17.8	"	"

"The severity of the cold continued nearly three months, and in both the months following the dates given the extremes of temperature fell nearly as low as those cited. Snow remained in large quantity at Washington from the first of January to the middle of March; ice covered the Potomac for the same period; Chesapeake Bay at Annapolis was closed from January 8th to March 14th; the harbors of Baltimore and Philadelphia were closed until late in March; Long Island Sound was closed to navigation from January 25th to February 27th; and the harbor of New York was much obstructed by ice; which several times made temporary communication across the East river. The western rivers were equally obstructed by ice, and it formed in the Mississippi as low as Vicksburg, floating in vast quantities below Natchez. At all points in Louisiana ice formed for weeks, and some places had heavy falls of snow. It was the same through all the States bordering the gulf; and in Lower Texas December gave the greatest depression. An almost simultaneous refrigeration struck over all the United States east of the Rocky Mountains on the 23d and 24th of December, giving the sharpest extremes very soon after this date in Texas, and a period prolonged at the north and east as if by continental influences simply."

Comparing the arid and interior areas of the two continents, we are informed of certain general resemblances of position and climate, viz: the Gulf coast of Texas, and the Mediterranean sea; the Gulf coast east of Texas, and the coast of Florida, the Chinese sea, and the South of China; the Gulf of California, and the Red sea; New Mexico, and upper Arabia; Persia, and Caucasus; Fremont's great basin, and the basin of the Caspian sea, and the other interior basins stretching eastward towards Pekin; British America, and the plains of Siberia and of European Russia; Sonora, and Palestine, etc. The great American prairie region finds its parallel in those of immense areas in the south and east of European Europe, and in Moldavia and Wallachia. The boundless steppe region of the south of Russia is frequently as treeless as the American prairie, and as deficient in water, but has less fertility. The Pacific coasts are Norwegin, English, or Spanish, but not French; but in lieu a temperature is substituted cold enough at mid-summer to prevent the growth of corn and vines. These climates do not penetrate the interior. The mountains being very near to the coast, the change of climate is abrupt. At

San Francisco, a few miles of distance only separate conditions extremely unlike. An elastic atmosphere and the most bracing effects distinguish the Pacific climate from those of the Eastern States.

"Whether due to the absence of humidity alone is not clear, but to whatever cause it is a notable practical feature. The interior valleys where the heat is excessive are similar to the cold coast also, and there is no climate which is not the reverse of enervating, in its whole extent. It has generally been held that this distinction has its origin in the quantity of atmospheric moisture attending the heat, and this is probably true for the most part, and particularly so of the eastern United States. If, as before stated, the moisture of the sea air on the Pacific is relative rather than positive, or is developed by the contact of great extremes of temperature, the whole may be taken as more dry than it would at first appear to be, and its uniformly bracing character will not be difficult to account for. As it is, all residents concur in pronouncing it more favorable to physical and mental activity than any they have known, from whatever quarter they come. The heat of the south, where the peculiarities of Spain are reproduced, is never enervating, and that of the excessively hot valleys of the interior is singularly endurable. This appears to be a characteristic of as much of the west coast of Lower California as is now known, as well as of the interior districts corresponding in position, the Gila River country and Sonora. In the last, however, there are intensely heated districts like the desert at Fort Yuma, where the heat alone is stifling from mere excess, though the air is intensely arid."

A very interesting chapter is furnished upon the relations of the basin of the Gulf of Mexico with that of the Mediterranean. The palmetto is abundant as far north as Charleston, and through the humid, low alluvians of Alabama and Louisiana it grows as freely as in Spain or Algiers. All species of palms are equally adapted to the two districts. The sugar cane succeeds better here than on the Mediterranean, growing perhaps out of greater warmth, whilst it succeeds moderately in Spain; the efforts of the French in cultivating it were not successful in Italy. The restricted extent of the tropical regions of Louisiana, Texas, and Florida, results from irregular extremes of cold, more severe than in Europe. Still there is room for an abundant measure of success, if the proper care were taken. The coast of Georgia, as far as Savannah, is better protected against winter extremes than that of the Gulf from Mobile to Apalachee bay, and even to Charleston the coast is preferable to that at Mobile.

"The productions of this extreme southern position correspond more nearly to those of Spain and the Barbary States than to those of Egypt, with which its position at sea level, and on the coast of a gulf at the mouth of a great river, would have some correspondence. The south of Florida alone gives as soft a climate for the winter as that of the south coasts of the Mediterranean, and at a point far enough south to do so, the tropical features of a dry winter and rainy summer become instituted. At Tampa Bay (Fort Brooke) the average temperatures are nearly those of Cairo, and the difference of latitude two degrees; yet here the winter temperature frequently falls to 30°, and the average of the annual minima for twelve years is 34°.4. In 1843, 1849, and 1852 the thermometer fell to 30°; in 1835 it fell at Fort King, Florida, one degree of latitude farther north, to 11°, or 21° below the freezing point. These extremes

are too severe to permit the natural result of the average temperatures to appear in the vegetable growths, and we find no part of the shores of the Gulf of Mexico, except the southern point of the Florida peninsula, to correspond with the most favored districts of the south shore of the Mediterranean, though the Deltas of the Mississippi and the Nile nearly correspond in latitude. By reference to the table of minimum temperatures it will be seen that the average minimum at New Orleans is 28°, and the absolute minimum for twenty years 13°; snow falls here at an average once annually also.

"It is apparent that with protection against non-periodic extremes of cold occurring at distant intervals the borders of the Gulf of Mexico in many places would show an adaptation to many tropical fruits not now cultivated, and it would not be difficult to devise means for affording this protection. With protection in 1835 the orange groves of Florida would have flourished through a period of several years, perhaps until 1852 or 1856. In the winters of the last named years more or less injury was done, but none so general as in 1835. It is probably in consequence of these irregular instances of severity that these growths are not more abundant as native products, and that Texas, with its highest temperatures, produces the palmetto, live oak, and thorny acacias only, resembling Spain and the Barbary States at a much higher latitude."

The following table of the temperature of the season, in different regions of the world, is condensed by us from the immense mass of Meteorological statistics given in the volume:

	Spring.	Summer.	Autumn.	Winter.	Number of years observation. 6 years.
Hebron, Labrador.....	21° 4'	45° 6'	29° 8'	0° 5'	10 "
Quebec, Canada.....	38.6	65.3	44.0	13.3	40 "
Castine, Maine.....	40.7	62.0	48.3	23.2	10 "
Concord, N. H.....	42.6	65.4	47.3	22.7	21 "
Burlington, Vt.....	42.7	67.9	47.8	21.6	43 "
New Bedford, Mass.....	44.7	67.1	52.0	29.8	28 "
Albany, N. Y.....	46.7	70.0	50.0	26.0	22 "
Pittsburg, Penn.....	50.0	71.4	51.4	30.6	2 "
Washington City.....	54.3	76.0	55.8	34.2	4 "
Richmond, Va.....	55.7	75.4	58.3	37.2	10 "
Charleston, S. C.....	65.9	79.8	66.5	51.4	21 "
Savannah, Geo.....	67.6	80.9	67.6	52.7	20 "
St. Augustine.....	68.5	80.3	71.5	58.1	25 "
Tampa Bay.....	72.1	80.2	73.1	62.3	4 "
Mobile.....	70.1	82.7	71.0	57.3	20 "
New Orleans.....	70.0	82.3	70.7	56.5	12 "
Natchez.....	68.0	81.0	67.1	52.2	11 "
Galveston.....	71.0	82.5	70.2	53.8	5 "
Nashville.....	59.9	77.3	57.1	39.5	12 "
St. Louis.....	54.1	76.2	55.4	32.3	8 "
Cincinnati.....	54.3	73.0	55.0	32.9	35 "
Fort Snelling, Min.....	45.6	70.6	45.9	16.1	14 "
Astoria, Oregon.....	51.1	61.6	53.7	42.4	3 "
San Francisco, California..	50.7	60.1	60.1	51.5	6 "
Santa Fé.....	49.7	70.4	50.6	31.6	13 "
City of Mexico.....	78.0	81.5	78.7	71.9	

The table below will show the quantities in inches of rain which fell in certain sections for the number of years mentioned. The maximum quantity is mentioned first, and the least quantity in the second line. The date last given applies to the quantity for the year only. The results are sufficiently curious, and indicate very clearly the dry and humid regions

of the Republic. Compare New Orleans and Mobile, for example, with San Diego and Brownsville, Texas!

STATIONS.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year.	Date.
Houlton, Maine, 84 yrs.	5.9	4.4	2.7	5.3	4.7	6.6	9.4	8.9	4.5	7.3	6.7	4.7	41.9	1840
1886-1845	1.3	0.6	0.1	1.1	1.5	0.4	1.9	0.1	1.1	0.5	1.7	1.5	30.8	1844
Albany, 28 yrs.	7.3	4.3	7.3	5.2	8.4	7.6	8.5	7.5	8.0	8.0	7.2	5.2	50.9	1850
1820-1853	0.7	1.2	0.9	0.7	0.7	1.7	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.3	1.3	0.3	31.7	1853
Baltimore, 19 yrs.	6.1	4.9	6.3	9.1	5.7	9.2	6.3	9.1	10.5	7.3	7.9	5.6	51.7	1859
1836-1854	1.0	0.9	1.7	0.4	1.1	0.6	1.2	0.3	0.5	1.3	1.0	1.5	23.3	1845
Charleston, * 15 yrs.	4.8	7.7	7.4	5.2	5.9	15.8	10.6	12.2	14.6	9.5	5.3	9.6	63.9	1789
1738-1754	0.0	0.8	0.6	0.1	1.8	1.5	1.2	8.7	0.7	0.3	0.6	0.9	36.0	1749
Mobile, † 15 yrs.	14.9	8.2	16.4	11.5	7.2	16.6	14.5	11.1	11.0	11.3	10.5	13.0	104.5	1852
1841-1854	1.9	1.9	0.7	1.1	0.7	1.5	1.8	2.1	0.1	0.4	1.7	0.7	43.5	1850
New Orleans, 17 yrs.	19.5	9.3	7.3	10.7	8.0	14.0	14.7	8.3	8.9	6.4	8.8	9.4	62.6	1853
1839-1855	0.1	0.7	0.9	0.5	0.4	1.2	0.8	1.3	0.6	0.7	0.1	0.8	39.9	1859
St. Louis (Dr. Engelmann), 19 yrs.	4.6	6.7	7.6	7.6	11.2	17.0	9.4	9.7	5.8	8.7	8.6	10.9	65.8	1845
1837-1855	0.4	0.5	0.7	2.2	2.3	1.4	0.8	0.4	0.3	0.9	1.1	0.7	30.8	1853
Cincinnati, 20 yrs.	6.4	6.4	8.2	8.1	9.0	11.5	8.9	7.2	7.5	9.5	6.6	9.4	65.1	1847
1825-1854	0.4	0.8	0.5	0.5	1.3	1.5	2.0	0.5	0.4	0.1	1.6	0.6	30.6	1839
Fort Snelling, 19 yrs.	16.1	4.1	5.6	6.5	7.5	11.1	9.6	6.5	5.3	3.4	2.3	49.6	1849	
1836-1855	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.5	0.0	1.5	0.8	0.7	0.0	0.1	0.0	15.0	1852
Brownsville, Texas, 6 yrs.	4.3	4.8	3.0	2.2	4.1	10.4	7.5	5.6	11.3	7.7	7.4	4.7	54.3	1855
1850-1855	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	4.1	0.6	0.0	20.7	1850
San Diego, Cal., 6 yrs.	24.4	8.2	2.1	1.8	2.1	0.6	0.0	1.3	0.1	0.1	2.8	4.5	13.0	1854
1850-1855	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	7.4	1851
San Francisco, ‡ 6 yrs.	60.8	5.4	6.4	5.0	0.6	0.4	0.0	0.0	1.0	2.1	5.5	11.9	25.8	1852
1840-1855	0.5	0.1	1.8	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.3	15.1	1851

The following table of temperature will also be found interesting:

STATIONS.	Mean of Aug.	Aug. to Sep.	Sep. to Oct.	Oct. to Nov.	Nov. to Dec.
Houlton, Me.....	04.5	9.3	11.9	12.5	12.7
Portsmouth, N. H.....	65.1	6.1	9.5	10.7	10.1
West Point.....	71.8	7.5	11.3	10.8	10.3
Toronto.....	66.3	8.2	12.9	8.6	10.4
Pittsburg.....	71.2	7.7	12.6	11.1	8.5
Norfolk.....	77.2	5.2	10.4	10.2	8.3
Tampa Bay, Fla.....	80.4	1.1	5.3	7.1	5.0
New Orleans, (Fort Pike),..	82.9	3.8	8.6	7.7	7.0
Fort Gibson.....	80.2	6.7	12.0	12.4	9.1
St. Louis.....	76.1	6.6	15.3	11.7	10.6
Detroit.....	67.4	7.4	12.4	9.4	11.4
Fort Mackinac.....	64.0	9.0	9.9	12.8	11.2
Fort Snelling.....	70.0	11.2	11.7	15.5	14.7
Council Bluffs.....	75.4	10.2	13.6	15.6	15.8
Fort Kearney.....	72.3	7.9	14.9	15.5	12.2
San Antonio, Texas.....	83.9	4.2	7.6	10.3	10.9
Matamoras, (Fort Brown),..	83.8	3.2	6.2	5.3	6.5
El Paso, (Fort Fillmore),...	79.6	2.4	12.4	13.2	4.8
Santa Fe.....	70.0	8.1	10.7	12.7	8.3
San Diego.....	73.6	2.8	5.3	8.6	5.2
San Francisco.....	57.2	† 1.0	0.3	3.6	3.1
San Joaquin, (Fort Miller),..	83.0	7.0	8.5	12.0	7.4
Fort Vancouver.....	65.5	4.7	7.5	6.8	10.0

* The first series is by Dr. Lining, the second at the military post. Though separated by a century they agree very nearly.

† 1841 and 1842 by Dr. Nott at Mobile, the remainder at Mount Vernon Arsenal.

‡ The observations of Dr. Barton included with those of the Military Register.

§ Record of Prof. Ray completed from observations by John Lea, Esq.

|| Record of Dr. Gibbons, and the Military Register commencing December, 1849.

We have here a table giving the comparison of the earliest date of first frosts at various points which will be extracted entire:

STATIONS.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Norfolk.....	Nov. 1	Nov. 18	Oct. 27	Nov. 14	Oct. 25	Oct. 16
Charleston.....	Dec. 13*	Oct. 26	Nov. 7	Nov. 15	Oct. 25	Nov. 14
St. Augustine†.....	Dec. 6	Dec. 5	Dec. 18	Dec. 30	Dec. 21
Fort Brooke.....	None	Dec. 5	Dec. 12	Dec. 12	Nov. 29
New Orleans.....	Nov. 9	Nov. 17	Nov. 25	Nov. 28	Oct. 31
Baton Rouge.....	Nov. 6	Oct. 28	Oct. 14	Oct. 16	Oct. 25	Nov. 18
Fort Kearney.....	Sep. 25	Oct. 5	Sep. 27	Sep. 26	Sep. 30	Oct. 4
Fort Laramie.....	Sep. 25	Oct. 5	Sep. 23	Sep. 30	Oct. 16
Fort Arbuckle.....	Oct. 18	Oct. 12	Oct. 9	Oct. 2	Oct. 20
Fort Brown.....	Dec. 10	Dec. 5	Nov. 25	Dec. 22	Dec. 18	Dec. 6
Fort McIntosh.....	Nov. 25	Nov. 28	Nov. 21	Nov. 26	Nov. 10	Nov. 13
El Paso.....	Oct. 9	Oct. 9	Oct. 26	Oct. 29
Santa Fé.....	Oct. 2	Oct. 1	Sep. 20	Sep. 14	Oct. 4
Fort Yuma.....	Dec. 3	Dec. —	Dec. 26
San Diego.....	Nov. 24	Nov. 6	Nov. 28	Nov. 6	Oct. 14
San Francisco.....	Nov. 6	Nov. 4	Nov. 28	Nov. 25	Nov. 4	Oct. 27
Fort Vancouver.....	Oct. 4	Oct. 22	Oct. 20
Steilacoom.....	Oct. 5	Oct. 11	Sep. 22	Sep. 1	Sep. 19

In his chapter upon winds, the author furnishes the following catalogue of some of the most remarkable hurricanes which have occurred in the history of our country:

List of Hurricanes on the Coast of the South Atlantic States, and on the North Coast of the Gulf of Mexico.

- 1700, Sept. 16th. (*Ramsay*.) "Sea rushed in upon Charleston with amazing impetuosity." Many lives lost.
- 1713, Sept. 16th-17th. (*Ramsay, Lamboll*.) "The great hurricane, attended with an immense inundation from the sea." All the vessels at Charleston except one driven ashore.
- 1723, — (*Barton*.) "A remarkable hurricane visited New Orleans this year, and nearly destroyed all the buildings."
- 1728, Sept. 14th. (*Hewat, Ramsay*.) Town and lowlands of Charleston inundated; twenty-three ships driven on shore and mostly destroyed, &c. Weather very hot preceding it.
- 1752, Sept. — (*Chalmers*.) "The two hurricanes which happened in Sept., 1752, were scarcely perceived 100 miles back in the country, though the first raged for ten hours," &c.
- 1753, Sept. 15th. (*Prioleau, Chalmers, Ramsay*.) The whole summer very warm at Charleston; all the vessels in the harbor driven ashore and some of them six miles inland over the marshes and small streams; the inhabitants taking refuge in the upper parts of their houses as in each previous case. "The hurricane of 1752 very far exceeded, both in violence and devastation, that of 1804." (Dr. Prioleau, from Dr. John Moultrie.) "All wooden houses above one story in height were either beat down or shattered; many gable ends of houses were blown out." Trees which were stripped of their leaves again blossomed and bore fruit in the late autumn which followed. (*Ramsay*.)

* Frost on other parts of the island and on the main land earlier. For 1850, the date is that observed at Oglethorpe Barracks, Savannah, Georgia, and in 1851 there was no "killing frost" at Fort Moultrie until December 8.

† For 1849 the observation was at Pilatka, for 1853 at Fort Pierce, and for 1854 at Forts Capron and Myers. The dates correctly represent the east coast of Florida, below St. Augustine.

- 1756, — (Lyell.) An instance of the flooding of St. Simons Island, coast of Georgia, referred to by Lyell. (*Second Visit to the United States*.)
- 1772, 31st August to Sept. 3d. (Gayarre.) A destructive hurricane in southern Louisiana though not so great at the city of New Orleans. The sea was driven over the islands along the coast of the Gulf. East of Lake Borgne the wind was from the sea, (E. S. E.,) but farther west it blew with the greatest violence from N. N. E. and E. Towards Mobile it destroyed the woodlands for thirty miles inland—spray was driven four or five miles inland in heavy masses and showers. Mulberry trees subsequently blossomed and bore the second crop of fruit.
- 1778, Oct. 7th to 10th. (Galvez, Gayarre.) Cited by Gayarre as very destructive to coast establishments near New Orleans.
- 1779, August 18th. (Gayarre.) Cited by this author as of less severity than others.
- 1779, Oct. 7th to 10th. (Galvez, Gayarre.) "It raged with such violence, in lower Louisiana, that the sea was higher than ever before, entirely destroying all the establishments at the Belize, Bayou St. John, and Tigouyou."
- 1780, Aug. 24th. (Gayarre.) This swept over the province of Louisiana, destroying all crops, tearing down buildings, and sinking every vessel or boat which was afloat on the Mississippi river. The Intendant Navarro, issued a consolatory circular to the inhabitants.
- 1780, Oct. 3d to 5th. (Redfield.) October 3d, at the western part of Jamaica; 4th at Cuba; 5th in the Gulf of Florida. (*Am. Jour. Sci.*, 1837.)
- 1780, Oct. 10th to 18th. (Redfield.) October 10th at Barbadoes; 12th north of Jamaica; 16th off Havana; 18th near Bermuda. Both these storms of 1780 are no doubt imperfectly traced, and it is probable that they are like others.
- 1797, Sept. — (Drayton.) "The tide rose some feet, and overflowed the wharves at Charleston; vessels were damaged and driven from their moorings."
- 1804, Sept. 3d to 9th. (Ramsay, Drayton, Redfield, Lyell.) September 3d at Antigua; 6th at Nassau, New Providence; 7th at Charleston; 8th at Norfolk; 9th at Boston, &c. This kept near the coast and was very severe; "at 10 p. m. of 7th the gale began at northeast, at 7 a. m. of 8th it was at east with redoubled force; in the afternoon of the 8th it was at southeast and did not decline in violence till 10 p. m." Houses were blown down, wharves destroyed, &c., at Charleston; immense damage was done on the coast of South Carolina and Georgia, but it did not extend beyond Wilmington, N. C. (Ramsay.) After this gale fruit trees flowered and bore fruit a second time. (*Ibid.*)
- 1811, — (Dr. Barton.) Hurricane cited in Dr. Barton's report, at New Orleans.
- 1811, Sept. 10th. (Niles' Reg.) At Charleston. A continued gale with heavy rain from northeast through Monday, Sept. 9th, and to 10 a. m. of Tuesday, 10th, when it suddenly changed to southeast. At 12½ p. m., a violent tornado struck the city, passing from southeast to northwest in a line 100 yards wide, destroying many lives and an immense amount of property. In violence it was next to the Natchez Tornado, and it was apparently an incident of the great storm of West India origin then prevailing.
- 1812, Aug. — (Drake.) At the mouth of the Mississippi; the Balize inundated, buildings washed away, &c.
- 1813, Aug. 27th. (Niles' Reg.) At Charleston; many persons drowned and vessels lost—the coast inundated, &c.
- 1814, July 1st. (Niles' Reg.) A violent tornado at Charleston, apparently central to a general hurricane as in the case of Sept., 1811.
- 1815, Sept. 18th to 24th. (Redfield.) At St. Bartholomew's, Sept. 18th; New York 22d; coast of Rhode Island on morning of 23d, "awfully destructive from southeast," &c.
- 1821, — (Dr. Barton.) Cited as one of the hurricanes experienced at New Orleans.
- 1821, Sept. 1st to 4th. (Redfield.) Sept. 1st north of Porto Rico; 2d off St.

- Augustine; 3d at Norfolk; 4th at Portland, Maine, &c. This is distant from the coast at Charleston, and the track is drawn in a line too nearly directly northward to be conformable to others.
- 1822, Aug. — (*Papers*.) Severe on the coast of the Carolinas.
- 1824, — (*Lyell*.) A hurricane flooding St. Simon's Island, Ga., in this year, is mentioned in Lyell's *Second Visit to U. S.*
- 1827, Aug. 17th to 27th. (*Redfield*.) August 17th at Barbadoes; 19th near Hayti; 24th east of Charleston; 25th off Cape Hatteras; 27th east of New York; 28th east of Halifax. This was central to the Gulf Stream through its whole track, and nearly midway between Bermuda and Charleston. Mr. Redfield gives 11 nautical miles per hour as the ratio of movement of this storm.
- 1829, — (*Bonsignee, Lt. Webster*.) The date of this is not given more nearly, it was an inundation of the coast at the Rio Grande.
- 1830, Aug. 10th to 19th. (*Redfield*.) August 10th at Barbadoes; 12th at Antigua; 15th at St. Augustine; 16th between Charleston and Norfolk; 18th off Boston; 19th at Newfoundland. This followed the coast from the south of Florida to Norfolk, and then passed off on a line more easterly than usual. Progress 17 geographical miles per hour; width of whole storm 5 to 600 miles; of hurricane 150 to 250 miles.
- 1830, Aug. 22d to 27th. (*Redfield*.) This storm has a similar general track, but lies farther east than the last. Its path divides the distance between the West India Islands and Bermuda on the south, and between the Atlantic coast and Bermuda through the entire curve of its course. Off Cape Hatteras its duration was 42 hours.
- 1830, Sept. 29th, 2d Oct. West India Islands to Grand Banks of Newfoundland, at the east of the usual track.
- 1831, Aug. 10th to 18th. (*Redfield, 1832; Berlandier*.) At Barbadoes August 10th; 13th east of Cuba; 14th at west end of Cuba and Havana; 16th near the north shores of the Gulf south of New Orleans; 17th and 18th continuing on the coasts of the Gulf, inundating the Balize and sweeping away houses, and wasting in heavy rains inland. This did not reach the Atlantic coast, though in all respects like those that do so by the longer route west of Florida, and the crossing of the lowlands of the north of Florida. The rate of movement was $13\frac{1}{2}$ nautical miles per hour by Mr. Redfield's calculation. It was very destructive at the Rio Grande in lower Texas.
- 1831, — (*Barton*.) Cited by this author as one of the storms inundating New Orleans.
- 1834, Sept. (1) (*Lopez, Bonsignee, Lt. Webster*.) A hurricane is enumerated for September of this year by these authorities in a list of those destructive on the coast of lower Texas since 1828. (Lt. Webster's survey of the coast at the mouth of the Rio Grande, 1848.)
- 1835, Aug. 12th—18th. (*Redfield, Berlandier*.) At Antigua, &c. on the 12th; 13th Porto Rico; 14th Hayti and Turk's Island; 15th Matanzas and Havana; 16th Tortugas and the central districts of the Gulf toward New Orleans; 18th at Matamoras, Mexico. "It went to Galveston, but was not felt at New Orleans." This is one of the hurricanes which are exhausted in the western areas of the Gulf and on the coast of Texas without returning eastward to the higher latitudes.
- 1837, Aug. 2d. (*Dove*.) At St. Thomas and Porto Rico Aug. 2d. At first a hurricane from N. W. 2 hours; then a dead calm 45 minutes, then hurricane S. E. $6\frac{1}{2}$ hours.
- 1837, Sept. 27th to Oct. 10th. (*Berlandier, Lopez, Redfield*.) Sept. 27th south of Jamaica; Oct. 1st at Yucatan; 2d and 3d at Matamoras, destroying the town of Brazos Santiago, and inundating the coast for many miles inland (Berlandier); 5th at Galveston; 6th near New Orleans; 7th at Mobile; 8th near Charleston; 9th and 10th passing off E. N. E. from Charleston southward of the usual line.
- 1837, Aug. 12th to Aug. 23d. (*Reid, Redfield*.) On Aug. 10th this began at 50° W. long. in the latitude of Antigua; it came near the coast at Savan-

- nah and Charleston, and returned to the same meridian at the 41st parallel on Aug. 23d. No other dates are given.
- 1838, — (Bonsignea, Lt. Webster.) At Brazos Santiago. But one of the authorities cited by Lt. Webster mentions this as flooding the coasts at the lower Rio Grande.
- 1840, — (Bonsignea.) This is mentioned in the list cited by Lt. Webster. It is not known whether this extended elsewhere, but the coast villages near the mouth of the Rio Grande were either greatly injured or destroyed.
- 1842, Aug. 30th to Sept. 9th. (Redfield, Lopez.) This pursued a nearly direct line westward from its point of origin in long. 63° W. to the coast of Mexico at Tampico; the track lying between the 21st and 30th parallels. First observed in lat. 25° 54', long. 63° W. on Aug. 30th; Sept. 1st north of Turk's Island; Sept. 2d south of Nassau, N. P.; Sept. 4th between Key West and Havana; 5th S. W. of Tortugas; 6th south of New Orleans in lat. 25°; 7th S. E. of Matamoras; 8th between Matamoras and Tampico; 9th wasting at sixty miles inland from Tampico. This inundated the coast at the lower Rio Grande. The body of the hurricane passed over the south part of the peninsula of Florida on Sept. 4th. Its track was nearly due west at a mean rate of 10½ statute miles per hour. (Redfield.)
- 1842, Oct. 2d to 9th. (Redfield.) First observed Oct. 2d at Tampico; Oct. 4th, 5th off Balize; Oct. 5th over a large portion of the peninsula of Florida, central a little north of Tampa Bay; 6th at St. Augustine and Charleston; 9th north of Bermuda, and going more directly eastward than usual. Appalachicola and Charleston were on the northern border, and Bermuda on the southern. At New York the barometer was very high, 30.10 to 30.46 on 4th to 7th. This was a *norther* on the Mexican coast. Immense numbers of sea and land birds were killed and found floating at sea. Progress less than 10 miles per hour.
- 1844, Aug. 4th—6th. (Berlandier, Lopez.) "The most terrible and destructive of any, though very little rain fell (at the Rio Grande.) Not a vestige of a single house remained at Brazos Santiago, or at the mouth of the river. The waters of the sea were forced up three leagues from the beach." (Berlandier.) About seventy lives were lost at this point. Mexican custom-houses and stores were withdrawn from their former positions after this storm, and the coast was abandoned as insecure.
- 1844, Sept. 14th. (Hist. Ga., &c.) Severe at Charleston on this day, but not traced elsewhere.
- 1844, Oct. 4th to 7th. (Redfield, Espy, Thrasher.) On both coasts of the west end of Cuba Oct. 4th; Oct. 5th at Key West; 6th east of Charleston and central to the distance between Charleston and Bermuda; 7th off Halifax, &c. This was terrific on the south coast of Cuba, 158 vessels were wrecked, and 2,546 houses destroyed. (Humboldt's Cuba, Thrasher.) Very destructive at Key West alone. This is thought by Mr. Redfield to have developed a second, which passed one to two days later along its track in the Atlantic.
- 1846, Sept. 11th to 21st. (Redfield.) At St. Vincent, Sept. 11th; Porto Rico 12th; west of Bermuda 17th; east of Halifax 20th; and passing at the west and north of the British Islands as drawn by Mr. Redfield. This did not appear on the coast at Charleston.
- 1846, — (Barton.) Cited by this author as inundating the coast near New Orleans.
- 1846, Oct. 6th to 14th. (Redfield.) Beginning at the south of Jamaica, it is traced nearly northward by Havana, Cedar Keys, the interior of lower Georgia on the 12th; the interior at Washington on the 18th; and near Quebec on the 14th. This track must be regarded as very doubtful in the north. It was very severe at Havana and Key West. (Key West and Havana papers.)
- 1848, Aug. 22d to Sept. 3d. (Redfield.) Began near Antigua Aug. 22d, passed Turk's Island and Nassau, N. P.; returning eastward lower than usual, and reaching 45° north lat., and 35° West long. on Sept. 3d.
- 1850, Aug. 23d — (Papers.) Appalachicola and Marianne, Fla. (Not at Savannah.)

- 1851, Aug. 16th to 26th. (*Redfield, Allston.*) Aug. 16th at 50° W. long. east of Antigua; 18th Porto Rico; 20th Havana; 22d between Havana and New Orleans; 23d at Appalachicola; 24th in interior at Augusta, Ga.; 25th near Norfolk; 26th lat. of Philadelphia; 27th lat. of Halifax. This was farthest inland or westward of any storm charted by Redfield, and its track was very nearly like that of Aug. 27th to Sept. 1st, 1856.
- 1855, Aug. 30th to Sept. 11th. (*Redfield.*) This was the most extensive on record. Mr. Redfield devotes much space to its investigation, and it appears to have begun on the coast of West Africa at 17° N. lat., passing slowly W. N. W. above or north of most of the West India Islands, going to 75° W. long. off Charleston, on the 6th and 7th, and then returning northeastward twice as rapidly, and passing on the line of the Gulf Stream toward Iceland. It was felt in various ways at all exposed points of the coast, and particularly at Cape Hatteras; Mr. Redfield designating it the *Cape Verde and Hatteras Hurricane*. (*Am. Jour. of Science*, 1854.) In the path of the storm the depression of barometer was *two inches* below the mean.
- 1854, Sept. 6th to 14th. (*Baldwin, Posey, &c.*) First noted off Cape Florida on the 6th; 8th at Jacksonville, Fla.; 9th at Charleston; 10th at Norfolk; 11th at Boston, &c. The whole area of the Gulf Stream was occupied with terrific storms and gales, and though great quantities of water fell inland, the central line was doubtless some distance from the coast. At Savannah Dr. Posey's barometer fell to 29.04, or nearly an inch below the mean.
- 1856, Aug. 9th to 12th. (*Barton's New Orleans papers, &c.*) This hurricane produced a fatally destructive inundation of portions of the coast south of New Orleans, Last Island (*Isle Derniere*) particularly. At New Orleans 13 inches of rain fell. (*Barton.*)
- 1856, Aug. 27th to Sept. 2d. This very recent hurricane, "the most disastrous since 1846," is thrown farther westward than any other from Cuba; the first notes we have of it are from the east of Cuba, Aug. 27th, where it was very destructive; it was central at Havana on the 28th; central midway from Havana to Mobile on the 29th, with the barometer (steamship *D. Webster*) at 28.6 inches; between Mobile and Appalachicola on the 30th; Montgomery, Ala., and Milledgeville, Ga., on the 30th and 31st; at Edgfield, S. C., and Goldsborough, N. C., on the 31st; and at Norfolk Sept. 1st. It then passed eastward at a low angle, not reaching any northern city as a storm, though there were threatening appearances as far as New York.

Treating of climatorial range of the native forests and vegetation, Mr. Blodget tells us that the removal of the forests is designated by some as the cause of the present aridity and bareness of the shores of the Mediterranean, and the diminished population of the historic nations of the East, and also, that the same cause has modified the climate of the Eastern States of the United States. The quantity of rain is also supposed to be diminished, and woodland rivulets which had considerable volume while the forests remained, disappear when it is cut away; rivers also diminished. The *sugar maple*, though rare east of the Alleghany south of Philadelphia, is abundant in Kentucky and Tennessee, parts of Missouri and Arkansas, and has even been found in Louisiana. The *beech* shows a similar range, except in an especial preference for alluvial soils. Other species of *maple* are almost universal in American climates. The *elm* pushes further northward than the sugar maple, though generally its limits are the same. The *black cherry*, *tulip*, and *cucumber tree* furnish liberal growths in the latitude of New York. The *magnolias* of the South

furnish a variety of forms, but those of the North are in the heavy woodlands. The *white ash* is remarkable for size and beauty as a Northern forest tree. The *poplars* and *cotton wood* or *sycamore* make up a large share of the free growths of the interior woodlands on alluvial or prairie soils. The *oaks* and *chestnuts* follow European rules, the latter preferring hills and mountain sides, coming nearly to the sea level in some cases as far South as Maryland. The *walnut* and *hickory* are similar, but grow in warmer climates and further South in the Mississippi valley. Texas abounds in an associated species in fine perfection, the *pecan nut*, the *linden* or *bass wood* characterizes the mixed forests of the North. The sub-tropical tree forms begin to abound in Ohio and southward, increase in numbers until they become exclusively tropical in the *oranges*, *palms*, *live oaks*, and *mangroves* of the lower half of the Florida peninsula. The *paw paw*, *cypress*, and *gum trees* commence in the Ohio valley, while *long leaved pines*, *cypress*, and *live oaks* appear on the Atlantic coasts at Norfolk; *evergreens*, *magnolias*, *palmettos*, and the *wild olive*, follow before reaching Savannah, and the border of the gulf affords many constant forms equally marked as tropical. The forest of the coast at Charleston abounds in rich tropical forms, *red and white bays*, *giant laurels*, *cabbage palms*, *live oaks*, &c. At St. Augustine the *wild orange* is added, and in the southern part of the peninsula *satin wood*, *mahogany*, and *mangroves*. The original growth of the *live oak* is traced as far north as Norfolk, increasing and lining the coast to New Orleans, without going back very deep. It is interrupted near the Sabine, but west of it becomes frequent again, going over the high lands of the interior of southwestern Texas, and entirely to the Pacific. A belt from the Mississippi eastward along the 45° parallel, includes the best tracts of *white pine*, embracing, in part, the high lands of N. York and Northern Pennsylvania; not much of this species is found elsewhere. In the Middle States a rough and singular growth of *pitch pine* covers the sandy and deserted tracts, which sometimes attain a sufficient size for lumber. South of Virginia the *yellow pine* becomes abundant, attaining the most perfect growth. It covers a large area of lands on the lower plain of the Southern States to Louisiana. A tract of these pines exists in Missouri, portions occur southward from it to Red river. In the arid interior the *cedar* is the most abundant of evergreens. In New Mexico the pines with edible fruit abound. The *cypress* of the Pacific coasts reaches giant proportions, 350 to 400 feet in height, and 15 to 30 in diameter. The *red wood*, the *Douglass*, *sugar*, and *yellow pine*, also, make up these giant forests. The *hemlock* is remarkable for its growth in the Eastern States, where it forms the heaviest

forests. But we have not the space to follow any further the teachings of this interesting chapter.

Passing over the climatological range of the several American staples, we will take an example or two:

1. *Indian corn*.—There is a wide band stretching to the foot of the Rocky mountains at the west, and from the 51° parallel of latitude, southward to the tropics, which is everywhere adapted in climate to this most productive plant. West of this belt the distribution is irregular, except in the northernly bends of the Columbia (Oregon.) West of 120° long. it does not appear on the Pacific coast. The Indian corn is cultivated in Africa, only in the states that are bordered by the Mediterranean. In Europe its range is comprised by Spain, the south of France, Italy, the valleys of Austria, Hungary, and Turkey, with the islands of the Mediterranean. It is not adapted to Central Europe or the British Islands.

Sugar cane.—We here insert two valuable tables together with the remarks which accompany them:

Mean Temperatures of the Cane and Cotton Districts of the United States, with some Foreign Comparisons.

PLACES.	Spring.	Summer.	Autumn.	Winter.	Year.
	°	°	°	°	°
Key West.....	76.7	83.0	79.1	71.2	77.5
Cedar Keys.....	70.6	80.0	72.1	57.8	70.1
St. Augustine.....	67.4	79.4	71.0	56.8	68.7
Savannah.....	67.7	80.4	67.5	53.0	67.2
Mobile.....	70.7	82.4	70.1	56.4	69.9
Pensacola.....	69.9	83.0	70.4	57.3	70.1
New Orleans.....	67.7	79.5	67.9	55.2	67.5
Galveston.....	71.0	82.5	70.2	53.8	69.4
Brownsville.....	74.3	82.9	73.7	62.4	73.3
San Antonio.....	70.5	82.2	71.4	54.2	69.6
Fort Jesup.....	66.8	81.3	66.3	51.0	66.4
Natchez.....	68.5	81.3	66.6	51.4	66.9
Fort Washita.....	62.4	79.6	63.3	45.1	62.6
Vicksburg.....	66.7	78.4	64.7	50.3	65.0
Memphis.....	61.1	78.1	61.4	42.6	60.8
Erie.....	65.2	79.7	64.4	51.3	65.2
Perry.....	66.2	79.8	65.3	48.6	65.1
St. John's, Berkeley.....	63.4	77.2	64.1	51.6	64.0
Havana.....	70.1	83.4	79.0	71.2	78.2
Kingston.....	78.1	81.1	79.7	76.1	78.7
Barbadoes.....	79.2	78.5	82.1	78.5	79.5
Madeira.....	65.6	71.3	69.0	65.8	67.9
Catania.....	52.8	62.8	84.6	69.4	67.5
Alexandria.....	66.4	78.3	73.8	58.5	69.3
Calcutta.....	85.5	84.3	80.6	70.9	80.3

Mean Monthly and Annual Fall of Rain in the Sugar and Cotton Districts of the United States (inches and tenths vertical depth.)

PLACES.	Spring.	Summer.	Autumn.	Winter.	Year.
Whitemarsh Island.....	9.0	13.4	8.7	6.9	39.1
Savannah.....	11.8	23.5	9.7	8.4	53.4
St. Augustine.....	6.4	12.3	6.0	5.8	30.5
Cedar Keys.....	5.0	21.9	18.2	6.3	51.4
Fort Brooke.....	8.4	28.4	11.7	6.9	55.5
Mobile.....	12.6	19.4	12.2	16.9	61.0
New Orleans.....	10.2	17.4	10.1	15.6	53.4
Fort Brown.....	4.0	6.4	12.2	7.9	30.5
San Antonio.....	8.9	9.4	6.0	8.3	32.7
Fort Croghan.....	12.5	7.7	6.2	8.4	36.7
Fort Towson.....	15.5	15.6	12.4	9.3	53.0
Fort Jesup.....	13.1	11.1	11.1	11.2	46.5
Natchez.....	14.8	13.6	13.3	10.4	58.2
Jackson.....	10.9	14.2	9.5	18.4	53.0
Vicksburg.....	10.0	9.5	11.2	16.3	48.4
Memphis.....	11.0	7.8	7.9	15.0	41.8
Monroeville.....	19.2	21.4	8.7	16.2	65.6
Perry.....	10.3	16.5	12.0	7.8	46.7
Charleston.....	10.6	18.0	9.7	7.6	45.9

It is not supposed that these results give any definite guide in regard to the limits of the sugar region; they only show that it is generally rainy, and, as it now exists, less subject to the droughts which prevail at intervals over parts of the South than the cotton districts. At the earlier periods of the introduction of the cane it was vigorously pushed towards the interior of South Carolina, and in Georgia and Florida; but with little success. It was thought in some cases that the droughts restricted it, but usually the impossibility of preserving it through the winter most discouraged its cultivation. The border of the present cane district is much more liable to intervals of protracted drought than lower Louisiana and Florida, as may be seen at the stations in Georgia and Alabama at a little distance from the coast—Perry, Monroeville, Jackson, Miss., and Memphis. In Texas the point may be more decisively tried, since the coast at Corpus Christi and Fort Brown must be sufficiently warm, and if the cane may bear the comparatively dry climate, it should be eminently successful.

The latitudes of Texas corresponding with those of its greatest success in Louisiana are not adapted to it for several reasons, the reduced temperature being the principal. The changes are too sudden, also, and the sweep of the winter cold more extreme; making the risks greater than the averages of temperature would lead one to suppose. In all of it the summer curve of heat is sufficient for the best result if the period of growth could be shortened, and the extension of this most desirable cultivation now rests on the solution of the single question of capacity for acclimation to a period not so great as ten months.

As a general fact indicating climatological characteristics the presence of this extreme tropical form as a successful commercial staple is extremely significant, and it sustains the analogies derived from the great success of its associate, Indian corn, and the great area covered at favorable spots by yuccas and the native cane of the river marshes. The sorgho, a cane of Chinese origin and similar characteristics, also grows freely, and may ultimately prove to have value as a sugar producer. There are many minor forms of these strong succulent plants, in which the ripening process develops a great quantity of saccharine matter, that belong pre-eminently to the climate of the United States; and bearing this fact in mind we may yet add valuable staples and plants of a like character, with a measure of success the more important from the fact that few or none of them will grow in Europe.

In actual cultivation the cane is being extended in Florida and in lower Texas, in both of which States there are large areas quite as safe from extremes of cold as in Louisiana—taking the counties bordering the Gulf in Texas, and the central tracts of the Florida Peninsula. A very little appears in States quite re-

mote from the Gulf, in both Kentucky and Tennessee sugar is actually made from the cane, and it has long been the practice to provide for the domestic demand on the smaller estates in Georgia and parts of South Carolina by planting small patches of cane. In New Mexico it is said that the saccharine development of the stem or stalk of Indian corn is such that sugar is made from it in the same manner for domestic supply. The very high measure of temperature attained in summer there, with a cold winter and dry atmosphere, favor this saccharine form of the ripening process in the highest degree.

In Texas the present year, 1856, has exhibited its greatest feature of disadvantage in a severe and protracted drought. The want of moisture in the soil is an irremediable injury, but it does not appear that a dry atmosphere simply, as that from the Rio Grande to Brazoria and Galveston usually must be in summer, is decidedly injurious.

We regret the impossibility in our limited space of following Mr. Blodget in his invaluable deductions relating to the general sanitary relations of the United States, and the permanence of its climates. These chapters abound in the most interesting particulars, and would be read profitably by every citizen. His remarks in regard to the mortality statistics of the census, compiled by ourself, go very far to show that they may be relied upon to represent the distribution of the principal causes of mortality. This is our own opinion, and the future value of the publication will on that account be great.

IS SLAVERY DECLINING IN MISSOURI?

THE census of 1856, as compared with that of 1851, taken by State authority, undoubtedly warrants an affirmative reply, although the actual increase of slaves was 12,492; the whites in the same time having increased 205,703, or sixteen times as fast. This fact should admonish the South of the danger which threatens it in that direction. Who can doubt that the cause is to be found in the border troubles, and the almost positive certainty that Kansas is destined to become the prey of the free-soilers? Surrounded on three sides by non-slaveholding communities, can any one in his right mind expect to see slavery maintain itself in Missouri? Under the present Union the border States must all in a short time be lost to us. Were that Union at an end the South would become at once a *unit*, and continue such for perhaps a century. The terms of a new confederation would secure this. The Union may be, and doubtless is, on a thousand accounts, very valuable; but let it be understood, that this is one of the items of the price that is paid for it.

In twenty-five counties of Missouri, the decrease in slaves in six years, reached 4,412.

Increase of free whites in ninety-five counties... 184,290.

Increase of slaves in ninety-five counties..... 2,262.

Ratio, 81 to 1.

In the same counties, the aggregate white population is

669,921, and the aggregate slave, 57,471, or 11 to 1. In the counties which adjoin Iowa, the following remarkable results are seen:

COUNTIES.	SLAVES.		FREE WHITE.	
	1851.	1856.	1851.	1856.
Atchison.....	83	85	1,648	3,312
Nodaway.....	70	148	2,043	4,624
Gentry.....	50	69	4,197	8,721
Harrison.....	13	8	2,434	7,634
Mercer.....	14	23	2,676	5,569
Putnam.....	10	31	915	5,570
Schuyler.....	55	51	3,232	4,635
Scotland.....	151	206	3,663	7,157
Grundy.....	149	188	1,856	4,989
Sullivan.....	88	62	2,895	5,044
	633	871	25,564	57,255
Increase of slaves from 1851 to 1856.....				238
Increase of free whites from 1851 to 1856.....				31,691

A VISION OF A STUDIOUS MAN.

Says a friend in writing to us, "your Review is one undoubtedly of interest and value to the people of the South, but I regret that, with its weighty ammunition, are not occasionally mingled a few small shot. One does not wish to philosophize, economize, and statisticalize always. It is agreeable to play a little, to nod a little, at times, and besides one has a sister, wife, or daughter, who may be very much inclined the same way. Can you not, Mr. Editor, throw in some "spice" now and then—some light and glowing sketches of fact or fancy, to amuse as well as to instruct us!"

There is some reason certainly in what our friend has said, and we have long, as editor, been coming to that way of thinking. To "eat saw-dust without butter," as one of the greatest English lawyers said of the duties of his profession, is not always a necessity. Hereafter, then, and none certainly will object, a chapter of the Review will be allotted, monthly, to sketches, like the following, original generally, but now and then selected.—EDITOR.

LONG ago—how many years since I do not like to think of, but it was when I was a young man and just beginning the world—I took delight in being a book-fancier; not a bibliomaniac, as the profane have it, but an ardent, eager bibliophilist, gathering together volumes from the ends of the earth. The famous collection at Donninghurst attests pretty well the extent of my labors in this vineyard. Arrayed in snowy vellum raiment, or in old tooled calf, or, better still, in ancient French morocco, they line these shelves of mine in the oak room, and are still the admiration—perhaps the envy—of the curious. Now that the fit has passed from me,—I look on them as so many memorials of an old folly, and find myself gazing at them curiously, as a lover might do at the faded writings of

an unworthy mistress. How I came to forswear this seductive pursuit and flee for ever from the temples of Christie, and Sotheby, and such famous brethren of the hammer, I will now try and set forth, as some entertainment for this passing hour.

When I first went down to Donninghurst, which was just after leaving Oxford, this book-fever, as it may be called, was very strong upon me, and I took exceeding delight in arranging and cataloguing the contents of certain great chests which had come down to me from London. And now, before going further, I may say a word concerning Donninghurst itself. It was nothing more than a small village—a quiet, retired, innocent little village of the Auburn kind, lying in a sheltered valley far from the busy hum of men. To look down from the brow of the hill upon the ancient church disguised in ivy, green and brown; upon the little bridge over the brook which divided the village; upon the noisy water-mill, the tiers of snowy cottages sloping down to the water's edge; this was pleasant and fit recreation for any contemplative man, and was as fair a prospect as could be seen upon a long summer's day.

Naturally enough, I had a great liking for Donninghurst, and were it not for the utter dearth of all congenial society—that is, of bibliophilist brethren—I should have pitched my tent there for good and all. True, there was the parson, who is traditionally supposed to be ardent in such matters, but who in our instance happened unfortunately to be a placid easy man, full of soft words, and with little scholarship beyond his Bible; in short, a smooth shaven respectability, as Mr. Carlyle would phrase it. I did not, therefore, grieve very much when I heard, on my second visit, that this reverend person had passed away to a brighter sphere—to a wealthier parish, that is—and that Doctor Erasmus Ashmole, F.R.S., F.S.A., Corres. Mem., &c., &c., had been appointed in his place. This was joyful news for me. In those mystic characters I saw wondrous visions shadowed forth: long Attic nights, earnest disputations, eager criticism, unique and matchless exemplars. Soon my card found its way to the vicarage, and within a very brief span I found myself in the full enjoyment of his friendship. I found him a fierce rude scholar of the true Bentley school—a man that called you Sir in loud tones, after the Johnsonian manner—with a way of beating the table savagely in the warmth of argument. All the golden visions I had read in the cabalistic letters were realized to the full. He had brought down a matchless collection—whole regiments of *Editiones Principes*; camel-loads of *Fathers*, clean and unsullied with virgin pages; *Bellandists*, *Variorums*, *Aldines*, all in superb condition and original bindings. *Elzevirs*, too, were there, not to speak of *Plantins*, *Jansens*, *Baskervilles*, *Tonsons*

and other famous im printers. There were also strange black-letter volumes—creatures in ponderous oak covers, with rude metal fittings. And, last of all, he had brought down with him an exquisite copy from Nature's own press, printed in the fairest characters, one unique and beyond all price; in short no other than his own fair daughter, sweet Miss Lizzie Ashmole.

She was a bright little creature, with a beaming face and dark brilliant eyes, with arched pencilled eyebrows and soft wavy hair worn à la Grecque, which I was told fell nearly to her feet. Indeed, the other day, when I went to see a famous Little Lady at one of our great theatres, I was perfectly startled at the likeness. No wonder, then, that Doctor Erasmus loved her, if any thing, better than his books. From long habit, too, she had caught up some odds and ends of bibliographical doctrine, upon which she used to discourse very gracefully; and it was very pleasant to see her striving hard to feel due reverence for the dusty inhabitants of the doctor's study. She had, besides, a tinge of romanticism, very refreshing in these flinty days of ours, and was filled with a kind of buoyant earnest faith, which she was not long in communicating to others—delighting, moreover, in rehearsing ghostly narrative, and spectral appearances. This she did so prettily, and so mysteriously, that I, before a scoffer and unbeliever, came at last to feel uneasy of nights, and rather shrank from the idea of going up stairs in the dark.

In short, to this complexion it came at last, as indeed was only to be expected—that the Attic nights with the doctor grew to be insufferably dull, and the doctor himself, and the Johnsonian manner something of a bore. I soon began to see a deal of truth in that passage of the ingenious Mr. Little, where he informs us that his only books were woman's looks. What if he had seen the precious little volume always open before me, and which I took such wondrous delight in perusing! I felt the Poisoned Arrow with the Golden Shaft smarting more keenly every day. In brief, I found myself one morning asking the Reverend Erasmus for a few moments, private conversation, at the conclusion of which I received a paternal accolade and numberless benedictions. Then was sweet Lizzie sent for, who came in blushing most bewitchingly, as though she had a faint suspicion of what was going on. After a month's interval, during which time I conceived an utter disgust for all things of leaves and parchment, the usual ceremony took place, and the happy pair departed for London en route to foreign parts, as was only proper.

During the happy days that followed, I never once thought of Elzevir or Aldine—never felt the least yearning towards

my old objects of affection, until—yes, until we came to the ancient city of Bruges. No human virtue could have withstood that seductive town. We had been admiring its halls, churches, paintings, carvings, bits of Gothic, all day long, and were returning pretty well tired to our hostelry, when we suddenly found ourselves before one of those picturesque little alleys wherein this city abounds. "O!" said sweet Lizzie, how like a Turkish bazaar! We must walk down just once!" With a remonstrance, as though I had a presentiment of what was impending, I suffered myself to be led into the fatal street, and was utterly ravished, as the French say, with all I saw. Dark monstrosities carved out of oak, ancient china, arquebuses, vestiments of rich stuffs, silver statues, bits of stained glass, and Heaven knows what besides, were gathered there, tempting sweet Lizzie to the very verge of distraction. While I—my hour had come at last—was irresistibly drawn to some quaint shelves crowded with old tomes in the livery that was so familiar to me. With the first glance I saw they were of a superior order, doubtless noble exiles from some rich library in the Faubourg, bearing on their backs the insignia of their haughty masters. I took one in my hand, and, as I did so, felt a queer sensation coming over me. They were bound in that famous old red morocco; and there was, besides, a second series arrayed in rich mottled calf—altogether a very choice and tempting lot. I was back under the old dominion in a moment.

"Look here, sweet Lizzie," I said, "did you ever see such a treasure?"

"Yes" said Lizzie, smiling; "very nice indeed"—she was at that moment studying an old Spanish rosary, thinking what a rare amulet it would make.

"Look," continued I, in a perfect transport—"such a superb piece of mottled calf; veined and freckled like a bit of jasper!"

"It is very pretty," said poor Lizzie, trying hard to admire it; "won't you buy it?"

Buy it! I hesitated—not for the price, which was scarcely a hundred francs or so, but because I knew how much depended on that moment. A look at the old red morocco decided me, and I was back again under the thralldom of the Book Demon.

The next day was spent in diligent investigation of my new-found prizes, and, all their beauties were dwelt on pitilessly for the behoof of poor Lizzie. The day after, we were to have commenced our journey home, but it occurred to me that there were some famous libraries at Ghent, scarce an hour's travel from Bruges. It would be a positive sin to leave these unexplored; such an opportunity might never occur again. At

Ghent, as everybody knows, are temptations enough for the book-gatherer; and from that city I returned very late at night, with a small sack filled with marvels of type and binding. Poor Lizzie, who had been sitting up for hours expecting me, looked ruefully at these trophies as I tumbled them out on the carpet before her. She was very tired, she said, and had passed a very weary day. What could have kept me? "There is type! There's margin!" I said, opening one wide. "I tell you what, sweet Lizzie; I have a rare scheme in my head—I planned it as I came along. Suppose we go back to Brussels; I hear there are things to be had there literally for a song. We might stay—let me see—a fortnight, whilst I rummage the great libraries. What say you, Lizzie?"

This was too much. I saw her bright little face suffused suddenly with a deeper crimson. How could I be so cruel to her! Especially when I knew she was dying to get home to her poor father. But she had been warned of this long, long ago. She ought to have taken advice. She knew, that, in my heart, I preferred those horrid books to her and every thing else in the world.

Good Heavens! here was a burst! I was astonished and indignant. But the fact was, women were so unreasonable, so very unreasonable. I must make allowance for that. Still, I did not like this trait in sweet Lizzie's character; I would speak to her seriously when we got home. And so, with a pitying smile, I said it was no matter; I would make any sacrifice for peace and quiet. The next day I suffered myself to be led away, out of Belgium, home again to London.

There, in sight of all my favorite haunts, the old fever came upon me with tenfold vigor. I was welcomed once more at Christie's and Sotheby's, and passed hours and days in their famous temples; while sweet Lizzie pined and languished at home utterly neglected. And such was the strange blindness over me, I could see none of this, but wondered, and sulked, and fell back on my old complaint of women being so unreasonable. Not a little of our money, too, was going in this wild fashion, in spite of imploring looks and gentle remonstrances from Lizzie. But I only held this for more of woman's folly; and, wrapped up in this selfish doctrine, I saw her cheeks fade and her light spirits sink without setting it down to any cause but whim and caprice. Ah? a cloud settles down upon me as I think over those days and my own stupid blindness—sacrificing living affection, truth, and love, on the altars of these cold paper gods!

So it went on for some ten months, when news came that the Reverend Erasmus had been suddenly called away to his last account when sitting in his study chair. This was a sore trial to

Lizzie, who loved her father dearly. She grieved very much and said, what should she do now that her only friend in the world was gone. At this epoch I felt a twinge of remorse, and for the next few days was so devoted and attentive, that I saw the roses coming back to her cheeks, and the old bright look into her eyes once more. But my enemies were still in wait for me. Had not Doctor Erasmus left me the rare and valuable library at Donninghurst, as one who would take care of it and keep it together for his sake? I was burning to get down and explore its treasures; and, after many faint struggles, fell back under the old yoke.

It was just coming on to the winter of that same year, a very raw unpromising season I well recollect, when I received one morning, with Messrs. Sotheby's respects, a catalogue of the extensive library of a distinguished person, lately deceased, which was about to be submitted to public competition. Glancing down its long files of names, my eye lit upon a work I had long sought and yearned for, and which, in utter despair, I had set down as *introuvable*. This coveted lot was no other than the famed Nuremberg Chronicle, printed in black-letter, and adorned with curious and primitive cuts. At different times, some stray copies had been offered to me, but these were decayed, maimed, cut-down specimens, very different from the one now before me, which, in the glowing language of the catalogue, was a "Choice, clean copy, in admirable condition. Another antique—richly embossed binding, and metal clasps—a unique and matchless impression." So it was undoubtedly. For the next few days I had no other thought but that one. I discoursed Nuremberg Chronicle; I ate, drank, and inhaled nothing but Nuremberg Chronicle. I dropped in at stray hours to look after its safety, and glared savagely at other parties who were turning over its leaves. Poor little Lizzie complained of being unwell, and lay all day upon the sofa; but what were such trifles compared with the well-being of the Chronicle? So I implored her to be careful of herself, and hurried away to watch over the precious treasure. What a change was here! And yet, not so long since, to save her a moment's pain I would gladly have made a huge pyre of all the black-letter rarities ever printed. But that was in the sunny days, when we lived at Donninghurst; she was very different then! So said I, shaking my head wisely, and hugging myself in my own folly.

The sale was to take place in about a week's time; and this particular lot was expected to come on about two o'clock, or thereabouts. All that morning I was very nervous and fidgety, and thought the hour would never draw near.

I had thirty pounds in clean crisp notes laid providently by

for such an emergency. Such a sum, I calculated, would be more than sufficient to secure the prize, though I was aware that at the Fonthill and other great sales copies had fetched considerably more. My coffers at this period were at a very low ebb; I had been indulging this wild taste to an extravagant degree, giving fancy prices whenever required; and there were to be seen in our hall significant groups of dissatisfied claimants, who were only to be got away with lame excuses and abundant promises. Still, I had contrived to gather together these thirty pounds, which had lain perdus in my drawer until such an occasion as the present. It had now got on to one o'clock, and I was thinking it was full time to be setting out, when my agent from the country was announced. Was ever any thing more unfortunate? Still he had business, business not to be deferred; and besides, had to leave town that evening; so I had to sit patiently and hear him out. When he had departed, and I was just getting my hat and gloves, down came an express from Lizzie, begging to see me before I went out, just for one moment. It was out of the question, I said; utterly out of the question. I would be too late as it was; she must wait till I come back. Here the Abigail, who bore the message, putting on a mysterious manner, began to hint darkly concerning her mistress' health—that she had been ailing these few days back, and must be treated gently. Muttering certain ejaculations, I bounded up the stairs, and rushed violently into the drawing-room, where Lizzie was still lying upon her sofa. "Well, what is it?" said I, impatiently; "I am in a hurry."

"O," said Lizzie, in her gentle way, "do come and sit down beside me; I want to speak to you very much—that is, to ask a great favor."

"Is the child mad?" I said, very roughly I fear. "I tell you I haven't a moment to spare; can't you say it out at once?"

Poor Lizzie sighed. "Well, then," she said, "you'll promise me not to be angry?"

"No, no," said I, stamping, "do be quick."

"Well," said she, taking out a little bit of paper from behind the cushion, "here is Madame Dupont been writing me a most impertinent letter, and——"

"What have I to do with Madame Dupont?" I interrupted; "who is she?"

"Don't you know?—the milliner," said Lizzie; "and now I want you, like a good dear, to give me the money for her—only twenty pounds; only to pay her and have done with her."

She said this so prettily, with that little earnest manner of hers, that my heart smote me; and, for a moment, she and the famous Chronicle were balancing each other in the scales.

It was only for a moment. Ah, the choice copy! the rich embossed binding and clasps! It was not to be thought of.

"No, Lizzie, I have no money to spare at present; we must try and put off Madame Dupont."

"Well, ten pounds; only ten!"

"Impossible."

"What," said Lizzie, with a little sigh, "couldn't you spare me that much out of all I saw in your desk yesterday?"

I blushed scarlet, not from shame, but from rage at being detected. "A spy!" I exclaimed, in a perfect fury; "a spy upon my actions! I hate such mean tricks. But," I added, turning sharp upon her with a feeling that must put a stop to this work, "I won't tolerate this interference; I'm not to be brought to an account for the little money I lay out on myself. Such low, mean prying! But money must be had for all your finery—of course, of course," and more to the same effect, which it chills my very heart to dwell on now. My only hope and consolation is that I was beside myself all that time. Poor Lizzie listened to me, perfectly overwhelmed, and trembling like an aspen leaf. She never answered me, but sank down upon the sofa without a word. I left her, thinking I had given a wholesome lesson, and walked out of the house in a proper state of indignation.

But the Chronicle—the famous Chronicle. I had utterly forgotten it. I felt a cold thrill all over me as I took out my watch. Just two o'clock. I flew into a cab, and sat off at a headlong pace for Sotheby's. But my fatal presentiment was to be verified. It was over; I was too late. The great Chronicle, the choice, the beautiful, the unique, had passed from me forever, and beyond recall; and, as I afterwards learned, for the ridiculous sum of nineteen pounds odd shillings.

And who was I to thank for this—this cruel prostration of all my hopes? Here was the prize torn from me, lost by a minute's delay, and all for a woman's absurd whim and caprice. By Heaven, it was enough to drive me distracted. But no matter; when I got home I would give her a piece of my mind. I would be master in my own house. Lashing myself thus into a rage, I strode moodily into the house, and made my way straight to the drawing-room. There I burst into a catalogue of all my griefs, mingled with a torrent of reproaches. She had ruined me—such an opportunity would never come again; I never would forget it to her. But let her take warning in time. I would put up with this kind of interference no longer. Poor Lizzie listened first with astonishment, but, as she began to understand me, I saw her bright

eyes flashing in a way I had never seen before. "And so," she said, her voice trembling with excitement, "this was why you refused me the little sum I asked. For shame! I could not have believed you so cruel—yes, so selfish. But I ought to have known this before; kind friends told me that this would come to pass—that you would sacrifice me to this wretched passion."

Again my heart smote me, and I felt a longing to sink down before her and beg forgiveness; but at the same instant I heard something whispering secretly in my ear that she it was who had lost me my precious treasure. On this I froze again in a moment. What right had she to hold this tone to me? I asked. I was sickened and repelled, I said, with her coldness and want of interest in all that concerned me. Then Lizzie, raising herself up from her sofa, and her eyes flashing more than ever, said she would speak now, for my sake as well as her own: that as to my unkindness and neglect, that was not so much matter—she would try and bear it—she would get accustomed to it, she supposed; but that I was fast ruining myself, making myself a laughing stock—yes, a laughing stock—to every one. It was a pity we had ever come together.

"Yes," I said, bitterly, "it was a pity, a great pity, I did not meet one more suited to my tastes—one that might have made some allowances, at least, for my old habits and associations. But it was no use talking about it now; it was too late." With that I hastily turned away; and feeling that I had been aggrieved, retreated to my study, full of bitterness and disappointment. Was there ever anything so unreasonable? And, instead of showing some sorrow for causing me such a disappointment, to turn round and beard me in this manner. A laughing stock! Those words grated unpleasantly on my ear, as I thought them over. I felt an envenomed sensation against poor Lizzie, which I cannot describe.

And how long was this to go on? (I put this question to myself, sitting among the dark gloomy shadows of my study.) Were all my studies to be broken in upon with cold looks and harsh words? Was I to have my chief hope and comfort in life embittered? An idea struck me. In a day or so I should have to go down to Donninghurst on business. Suppose I went that very evening instead? I would be there in an hour or so, and could return to-morrow if it suited me. Here was a ready means of release offered me. I could withdraw myself for a little from London, which I had begun to hate, and from home, which was growing distasteful to me. It would be a pleasant change of scene; and I felt, besides, a craving

for solitude and the companionship of my books. I longed for a quiet evening in my little study, many miles removed from unkindness and domestic bickerings. So all these things then appeared to my distorted vision.

It seemed a rare scheme; and so I lost no time in executing it. I packed up a few things, and telling Lizzie, coldly enough, that I would most likely return early in the morning departed by that night's train.

About seven o'clock that evening we came rolling into Donninghurst. It was a raw, bleak night, with a harsh, black frost abroad; not your true, genial, inspiring weather, covering the ground with crisp snow, and making the cheeks tingle, but a dark, lowering atmosphere, very dispiriting and oppressive. Therefore it was that I felt very uncomfortable and out of sorts as I stood in the cold, comfortless study, watching the slow process of kindling a fire. No one had expected me on such a night—naturally enough—so I found everything cold and desolate. There was an ancient retainer always left in charge of the house, whom I took a dismal pleasure in likening to Caleb Balderstone, in the novel. His queer ways and curious make-shifts in providing for the emergency, were so many occasions of identifying myself with the unhappy Master of Ravenswood and his follower. At last a fire was lighted, and I settled myself down for the night. What should I have down, I said, looking round affectionately on the shelves. Old Fuller?—None better—Old Fuller, by all means. I got him down reverently and cleared the dust from him gently. I was going to have a night of enjoyment.

When he was properly bestowed upon the oaken reading-desk, and the lamp had been turned up to the full, and one last poke given to the fire, I felt that I had all the elements of a studious night to hand, and that I ought to be exceedingly pleasant and comfortable. Yet some way Good Old Fuller seemed to me not quite so racy that night. I felt inexpressibly lonely, and every now and again I heard the wind, which had begun to rise, coming round the corner with a low moan, which gave me a very dismal feeling. Do as I would I could not shut out Caleb Balderstone. Then, too, I found my eyes were perpetually wandering from Good Old Fuller to the coals, where I would discover all manner of distracting visions.

It certainly was a noble edition—that Chronicle, said I, reverting to the events of the day—a noble one truly. O how could she have let me miss it! And yet who knows? I might fall in with another copy some of these days! But then she had no need to speak to me in that way—to ridicule me—to reproach me. No matter about that now—to busi-

ness—with that, I came back again to old Fuller—for about a page and a half of him—as it might be. It was very singular. I could not lay myself down to work. I grew annoyed—vexed. Impatiently I pushed the Ancient Worthy far from me, and leaning back in my chair fell to studying the fire once more—watching the wreaths of smoke curling upwards—every now and then taking the shape of a bright, gentle little face that seemed to look at me reproachfully.

Alone, here, in this desolate spot—alone with Old Fuller and his brethren. And these false slaves to whom I had bound myself, and sacrificed all, were now deserting me when I most needed their assistance. I likened them, bitterly, to the Familiars in the old Magic Legends who treacherously abandoned their masters in their greatest straits. And Lizzie (sweet Lizzie she was once!) all alone in the great London world, keeping her lonely vigil! Just then there came up before me, as it were, floating from the past, a vision of another time—not so long passed away—coming to me, as it were, in a flood of golden light, wherein Old Fuller appeared to shrivel up, and shrink away into a dry, sapless Ancient, as he was. It was on a clear moonlight night—I well recollect—with the ground all covered with snow, and I was coming out beneath the vicarage-porch, going home for that night—when she, sweet Lizzie, came out into the moonlight, and we lingered there for a few moments, looking round and admiring the scene. Such a soft tranquil night, with a bright glare shining forth from the midst of the dark mass rising behind us, showing where the Doctor was hard at work in his room. I often thought of that night after, and of the picture of Lizzie, as she stood there with her face upturned to the moon. Conjuring up this vision from the fire, and recalling her mournful, subdued, face, as she lay upon the sofa, when I so abruptly quitted her, I felt a bitter pang of self-reproach and found my repugnance for the cold, senseless creatures around me, increasing every instant.

After that there came a feeling over me that I had been sitting there for hours—for long weary hours, and that morning would never come. Suddenly it seemed to me that I heard the sound of wheels outside on the gravel, with strange confusion as of many tongues, and that some one came rushing in hurriedly—seeking me—and telling me I must lose no time—not an instant. I knew by a kind of instinct what it was all about, and why it was I was thus brought away.

There was a heavy load upon my heart, as of some evil impending—some dreadful blow about to fall. Then came the long, hurried journey throughout the dark night—the rattle

over the pavement, and the flittering of lights past the window, as we drew near the noisy city. Then was I led up-stairs softly in a darkened room—the drawing room, where were many people crowded together, and whispering. And there on the sofa, just as I had left her, I caught a dim vision of sweet Lizzie—very pale and sad—with the same gentle look of reproach. I heard the old soft voice, full of affectionate welcome and forgiveness, and then it seemed as though the shadows were beginning to fall, and shut me out from her forever. With a wild cry I stretched forth my arms to the fading vision—and there was I back again in my old study at Donninghurst, with the fire sunk down in ashes, and the lamp flickering uneasily on the verge of extinction, and great gaunt shadows starting up and down all around me on the wall. The scales had fallen from my eyes. The delusion had passed from me forever. Just then the village clock began chiming out the hour—three-quarters past eleven. I recollected there was a train to London at midnight, and in another instant I had fled from the house, and was rushing up the deserted street. There was scarcely any passengers—so late was the hour—and there was a lone, deserted look over the vast station, very chilling and dispiriting to one in my mood—after what seemed a weary, never-ending journey, we reached London, and in ten minutes I was in my own house, at the drawing-room door. She had not gone to bed; and, as I opened it softly, I saw her stretched upon, where she had cried herself to sleep—just as I had seen her in my dream.

What a meeting followed on that waking, may be well imagined, and need not be set down here. I never fell back into the old slavery. All my famous treasures were ruthlessly sent away into banishment down to Donninghurst, where they may now be seen. And, not very long after, I heard of another copy of the great Chronicle being in the market; but I heard it with the utmost placidity.

Thenceforth our lives ran on smoothly as a bright summer's day; and, as they tell of the good people in the story-books, we lived happily together forever after.

Forever after! It were better not to cast a shadow upon this vision of a poor lonely man, by dwelling on what befel me within a brief interval after that. I have not courage to say it now. So let those cheerful words stand, by way of an endearing fiction, to receive, as my only hope and comfort, their full enduring truth in the long hereafter of another world.

THE COTTON CROP OF 1856-'7.

WE continue (see October number, p. 443) the Statistics as published in the New York Shipping List, premising that they differ a few thousand bales in the aggregate from the accounts made up by the Southern papers. The difference is, however, scarcely appreciable, though it will be referred to at another time.

There were received during the year 2,022 bales of Cotton at New York, from Memphis, Nashville, &c., up river, 1,236 at Philadelphia, 1,496 at Baltimore, being a decline upon either of the two preceding years.

Export to Foreign ports from September 1, 1856, to August 31, 1857.

From	To Great Britain.	To France.	To North Europe.	Other For. ports.	TOTAL
New Orleans.....	749,485	258,163	156,450	129,619	1,293,717
Mobile.....	211,231	84,840	16,570	2,348	314,989
Texas.....	9,792	4,428	6,687	20,907
Florida.....	29,125	1,764	30,889
Savannah.....	138,694	2,504	5,976	10,665	158,839
Charleston.....	138,876	40,821	28,296	21,192	229,185
North Carolina.....
Virginia.....	200	200
Baltimore.....
Philadelphia.....	820	820
New York.....	145,984	21,601	28,600	808	196,993
Boston.....	4,663	1,455	6,118
Grand total.....	1,428,870	413,357	245,798	164,632	2,252,657
Total last year....	1,921,386	480,637	304,005	284,578	2,954,606
Decrease.....	492,516	67,280	58,207	83,956	701,049

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF GROWTH.

CROP OF	CROP OF
1856-'7.....bales. 2,939,519	1839-'40.....bales. 2,177,855
1855-'6..... 3,527,845	1838-'9..... 1,360,532
1854-'5..... 2,847,339	1837-'8..... 1,801,497
1853-'4..... 2,930,027	1836-'7..... 1,422,930
1852-'3..... 3,262,882	1835-'6..... 1,360,725
1851-'2..... 3,015,029	1834-'5..... 1,254,328
1850-'1..... 2,355,257	1833-'4..... 1,205,394
1849-'50..... 2,096,706	1832-'3..... 1,070,438
1848-'9..... 2,728,596	1831-'2..... 987,477
1847-'8..... 2,347,634	1830-'1..... 1,038,848
1846-'7..... 1,778,651	1829-'30..... 976,845
1845-'6..... 2,100,537	1828-'9..... 870,415
1844-'5..... 2,394,503	1827-'8..... 727,593
1843-'4..... 2,030,409	1826-'7..... 957,281
1842-'3..... 2,378,875	1825-'6..... 720,027
1841-'2..... 1,683,574	1824-'5..... 569,249
1840-'1..... 1,634,945	1823-'4..... 509,158

CROP OF SEA ISLAND COTTON.—The crop of this Staple for the past year (included in the General Statement) was as follows: Florida, 20,365 bales; Georgia, 9,764; and South Carolina, 15,185—total, 45,314 bales, against 44,512 in 1855-'6; 40,841 in 1854-'5; and 39,686 in 1853-'4.

CONSUMPTION.

Total crop of the United States, as before stated	bales..	2,939,519
Add Stocks on hand at the commencement of the year,		
September 1, 1856—In Southern ports.....	20,014	
In Northern ports.....	44,157	
		64,171
Makes a supply of.....	3,003,690	
Deduct therefrom the export to Foreign ports..	2,252,657	
Less, Foreign included..	1,161	
		2,251,496
Stocks on hand, September 1, 1857:		
In the Southern ports.....	23,580	
In the Northern ports.....	25,678	
		49,258
Burnt at New York and Baltimore.....	798	
		2,301,552
Taken for Home use.....	bales..	702,138

Quantity consumed by and in the hands of Manufacturers North of Virginia.

1856-'7.....	bales.	702,138	1840-'1.....	bales.	297,288
1855-'6.....	652,739		1839-'40.....	295,193	
1854-'5.....	593,584		1838-'9.....	276,018	
1853-'4.....	610,571		1837-'8.....	246,063	
1852-'3.....	671,009		1836-'7.....	222,540	
1851-'2.....	608,029		1835-'6.....	236,733	
1850-'1.....	404,108		1834-'5.....	216,888	
1849-'50.....	487,769		1833-'4.....	196,413	
1848-'9.....	518,039		1832-'3.....	194,412	
1847-'8.....	531,772		1831-'2.....	173,800	
1846-'7.....	427,967		1830-'1.....	182,142	
1845-'6.....	422,597		1829-'30.....	126,512	
1844-'5.....	389,006		1828-'9.....	104,853	
1843-'4.....	346,744		1827-'8.....	120,593	
1842-'3.....	325,129		1826-'7.....	103,483	
1841-'2.....	267,850				

THE YELLOW PINE FOREST OF THE SOUTH.

THE rapid disappearance of the pine forest, under the axe of the planter and timber-getters of the Southern States, known as the *yellow pine* among ship builders, is beginning to attract the attention of the public.

This belt of forest runs east and south of a line drawn from the Chesapeake Bay through Raleigh, in North Carolina; Cheraw and Columbia, in South Carolina; Augusta, Macon, and Columbus, in Georgia; Montgomery in Alabama. This line may be said to be the base of the Blue Ridge.

From this base line stretching to the seaboard, over a level or gently undulating country, but occasionally interspersed with oak and hickory, lies this great pine belt.

Its width, save that tongue jutting into Florida, may be estimated from seventy-five to one hundred and fifty miles, but on that portion touching the Atlantic and Gulf coasts, a width of from thirty to forty miles, the pines are scattering and of stunted growth, and almost worthless for commerce, save for turpentine; so that it may be safely estimated that that portion of the pine belt adapted for the cutting of timber cannot exceed an average of more than seventy-five miles in width, and of this, probably near one-half of the forest, since the first settlement of the country, has been deadened and the soil put in cultivation.

It is well known that the stronger and better the soil, the larger, longer, and straighter are the pines, and thousands of acres of these pine forests are annually deadened by the planters for the purpose of putting fresh land into cultivation, while the timber-getters are culling and cutting for commerce that which is within a convenient distance for water carriage. Nor will the planter desist from this wholesale destruction of these forests until the value of the trees shall be so enhanced as to make it an object for him to hold them for their value as lumber.

Thus will the forest continue rapidly to disappear, until it will be found, perhaps too late, that there is a scarcity of this valuable timber, and which, if ever replaced, will require centuries.

For more than a quarter of a century the United States Government has been guarding and protecting the live oaks that grow within a limited distance of the seaboard, and yet it is a well-established fact that the live oaks are of a much more rapid growth than the yellow pine.

It has been estimated by the timber-getters that a large pine, sufficient for the spars or beams of a first-class ship, requires from two to three hundred years to grow.

The pine forest of Virginia, North and South Carolina, which is within a convenient hauling distance to water carriage, is already nearly exhausted.

In Georgia, that which is on the principal rivers has been culled for some miles on either side of the streams, and timber is now being hauled from ten to fifteen miles to Savannah river for shipment.

The French Government at the present time is having its orders for timber filled by trees cut in Georgia, upon the rivers that flow into the Gulf of Mexico, and here the rafting of timber for miles across the open bays to the points where the shipping can come to receive it, renders it exceedingly troublesome and expensive, and often attended with the entire loss of the rafts.

With a knowledge of these facts, and doubtless startled by the rapid destruction of these pine forests, our Government has acted wisely in withdrawing from sale (now for the first time) her pine lands which lie upon the Suwannee river in Florida, with the view of holding them for their lumber for the future use of her navy; and it may now be seen—and perhaps too late—that this wise precaution should have been taken years ago, by withdrawing those pine lands in Florida which are situated upon the waters that flow into the Atlantic.

SALT—HISTORICALLY, STATISTICALLY, AND ECONOMICALLY.

IV.

SALT APPLIED TO AGRICULTURE—ELEMENTARY NOTIONS OF AGRICULTURAL CHEMISTRY—THREE OF THE SALTS FOUND IN THE ASHES OF PLANTS TO BE MANUFACTURED HERE—AFTER—COMMON SALT A CONCENTRATED FERTILIZER—ITS INFLUENCE ON THE COTTON PLANT, AND PROSPECT OF ITS FUTURE CONSUMPTION BY AMERICAN PLANTERS—MIXED WITH FARM-YARD MANURES, IT IMPROVES THEM—MIXED WITH THE GUANO, IT MULTIPLIES THE VALUE OF THIS FERTILIZER, AND CREATES A WONDERFUL INCREASE OF PRODUCTIVENESS—FINANCIAL PROFITS OF THE APPLICATION.

THE use of salt in agriculture is one of the most controverted questions in the Old World, and of the most important to the planting and farming interest of the United States. In Europe the discussion of it has been always between governments, accustomed to make money with the duty on salt, and consumers, impatient to get rid of that tax, and delighting in making it hateful by exaggerating the agricultural profits prevented by the taxation of the article. Both parties having judged constantly the case at their own private point of view, one understands how the most of the European documents deserve little confidence on this serious question. Hence, also, our care to bring in it new facts and the best tried, in order to afford a basis for a complete and definitive decision.

The duty on salt, as a spring of public income, existing no more in the Federal Government, nor into the particular States, we have not to answer the old objections supplied by financial covetousness, and already refuted by the unanimous consent of getting salt at the lowest price. On the other hand, American consumers, not having to fight against an avaricious treasury, have no motive of favoring blindly the advocates of the use of salt as applied to agricultural pursuits. Thus they can establish the question on an experimental ground, equally far from theoretical extremes, and to the great honor of the United States resolve, on this new ground, the long disputed problem on which depends the increase of human welfare by the rational and practical use of a new fertilizer.

Salt, besides, has another importance and many functions to fulfil in agriculture. At first it constitutes a condiment for the food of cattle, and in this respect, as much as by the bonification of land, it interests owners and tillers of the soil. Antiseptic for domestic animals, it gives help to their vigor as to the health of man. This is a general rule in the animal kingdom, but subjected to a great variety of applications, and to exceptions important to be pointed out, in order to prevent the most dangerous misuse.

Thus, by an exception to this universal importance, salt seems deadly or useless to birds, because probably we do not know the infinitely small portion available to them. Fowls are equally disregarding of it, digesting by means of gravels, as the ostriches by means of pebbles. The feathery tribe seems, consequently, making no use of salt, and in any case it is one of the animal kingdom which uses the least of it.

Among quadrupeds, the carnivorous do not, apparently, call on salt. But the herbivorous feel so strong a want of it, that no distance, no difficulty, can prevent them from finding this indispensable article. First presumption, that their vegetable food being far from having the quantity of salt required, can itself, when growing, be supplied advantageously by the same element.

Common salt is sometimes replaced by equivalents in the digestive functions even among the various human races. The Esquimaux delight in eating marine plants, and do not take any care of manufacturing sea-salt. The Indians of California cook their game in the ashes, and eat it always with some of them, not wanting at all, and even disliking common salt, by an effect of habit, thus replacing this element by the alkalies of the burnt plants. Necessity of salt varies as much in the drink as in the aliment of man. Brackish water becomes disagreeable, even injurious to his health, generating fevers and *malaria*; but the same is often preferred by the cattle to the purest springs.

These effects of salt over the animals are ruling the vegetable kingdom with an equal diversity. There, also, the presence of salt is a necessity, equally subjected to numerous exceptions, and used by nature with an infinite variety as regard to the quantity of this element. Hence the danger to the farmers of its misuse, when the natural proportion and mode of applying it remains unknown or uncertain by lack of scientific notions and practical skill. Salt is a kind of digestive for plants, but too much digestive is sometimes worse than an indigestion. Thus, too much manure destroys the harmony of fertilizing principles, and even can momentarily produce an absolute sterility. For instance, the cotton-seed is one of the best fertilizers for the growth of this staple, but if it covers with excess the soil, it kills the most long-lived and multiplying plants. Such is also the case with the guano, of which the yearly importation into the United States reaches now 250,000 tons, and represents \$10,000,000, dedicated to the progress of the American agriculture. If this valuable, but so costly manure, was misapplied, it would become soon the true curse of the plantations enriched by it, and instead of adding every year twenty or thirty millions of dollars to the production of the United States, it would lessen it of an equal, if not greater value.

Well, now, the powerful influence of salt is already illustrated by these examples. Use or misuse of it will be new life or death for the plantations where it is to be applied in the most advantageous ways, either to the bonification of the soil, improvement of other fertilizers mixed with it, alimentation of domestic animals, preserving of seeds and farming provisions, or at least the destruction of parasitical herbs, and swarming of insects injurious to the crops.

As to the direct application of salt to the amendment and better adaptation of soil for the growth of plants, I suppose the following principles of agricultural chemistry are already known:

1st. Plants must be supplied with the same elements they contain: it is with substances wanted by them as essential, or at least useful, to their growth.

2d. These substances can be found by the most simple analysis of

plants, made by burning them. After losing their volatile parts, as water, carbonic acid, and ammonia, this analysis reduces any vegetable substances to ashes or salts; and we see these chemical salts used always among the best manures of plants.

3d. These salts coming out from the soil, if not carried away by rains and rivers to the sea, where they are found in immense quantities, are to be returned to their mother earth, and, as fertilizers, must regenerate her when she is worn out by successive croppings.

4th. Among these various and numerous salts, we notice Glauber's salt, (sulphate of soda,) Epsom's salt, (sulphate of magnesia,) and the common table salt, till now spoken of, and scientifically termed, chloride of sodium. These three kinds of salts, found in the ashes of plants, are consequently pointed out as suitable manures; and as they also are especially produced from the sea-brine, especially gathered on our salt-works, this simple fact already certifies the value of our salt manufacture for manuring purposes, and agricultural improvements.

Now comes the query—what are the peculiar advantages of using common salt? This salt is composed of two elements: the chlorine, an acid, and the sodium, an alkali, which, in the most various shapes, are universally diffused in soils and plants. Hence, a proof of their real wants when not in excess. Each of them plays, indeed, an important part on vegetation. For instance, the ammonia, one of the most important elements of plants and manures, is also the most volatile, the easiest to be lost, because existing always as vapor, unless fixed by a third element. Then, to supply this new element, let us use the common salt, of which the chloride having the strongest affinity with the ammonia, changes this volatile combination into a fixed ammoniacal salt or permanent manure. This, too, in order to be a great deal more valuable for plants, wants mineral constituents, among which is the second element of common salt, the sodium. Thus, the sodium, as mineral alkali, helped by the action of the ammoniac, becomes food for vegetation: on the other hand, it unites with the carbonic acid of the air, and with this great nourisher of plants, it produces the carbonate of soda, other supply for cultivation.

In this mysterious chemistry, when the leaves decompose by sunlight the carbonic acid of the air, and assimilate the carbon, when the aspirations of the roots carry on underground an alike working with the earthly alkalies, common salt brings there its sodium; and if this food is not directly the most nutritive, it seems the most stimulant—making more valuable, more easily assimilated, the other elements—and being, in this respect, when used judiciously, as useful to the growth and vigor of plants, as it is to the good digestion and health of the animal kingdom. Hence, the conclusion, that, when crops become poor, and land old and worn out, the two elements of salt, or the common salt itself, must be supplied in time and way appropriately to the condition of localities and various kinds of crops. But how is salt to be used, and how much, in order to restore for growing plants the virgin freshness of soil? How to make it new, even richer than before cultivated? This is the question, of which the practical skill remains alone supreme judge.

From these general principles let us go right to some positive facts, and draw from them clear applications and practical results.

As regards the cotton plant, for instance, peculiarities of soil and effects of climate, produce undoubtedly a great many varieties of it. One of them, the Sea Island cotton, is very much affected by the locality in which the seed is planted, in the midst of a saline atmosphere, and with the salt mud employed to manure it. This condition is decidedly favorable to the softness, color, and texture of this staple, which delights in sea-air and sea-soil, not far from the more salted ground, where the *Barilla* or soda plant can grow by a stronger assimilation of the marine alkali. All these facts prove that salt, in a shape and quantity to be determined hereafter, is necessary to the Sea Island cotton. And undoubtedly correct is this conclusion, for the same plant, produced from Sea Island cotton seed, degenerates from its first quality as soon as it is grown far from the saline influence—for instance, at 40, 60, or 100 miles from the sea, it becomes so coarse as to be scarcely distinguished from the *green seed*, or short staple plant. But that is not all; and the reverse case makes even more obvious the same conclusion, in showing the green seed cotton, when transplanted to the sea-coast, becoming itself of a longer staple, and much finer in its texture. Then I ask the practical planters: is it not possible that the same short staple could be improved in quality without moving from the interior land, towards the coast, if the healthy and invigorating influence of the sea could reach it, or be transported in any way? The sea-breezes certainly cannot be manufactured for the wants of this plant; but the sea-soil and the salt-mud can very easily be supplied in the shape of common salt.

The greatest progress of agricultural economy consists, not in the use of manures, generally too costly by expense of management, but in the use of their essential elements concentrated in powerful fertilizers, of easy application, and cheap portability. The common salt is one of these concentrated fertilizers, thirty and forty times superior to salt-mud, barn-yard, or marsh manure, so often used by cotton planters, but so seldom paying the cost of carriage and rewarding the trouble of their application. In this economical respect, salt rivals the guano, phosphate of lime, or any other concentrated fertilizers; and, like them, it is now to be applied more and more to agricultural pursuits. But mark well this point: its application ought to be always systematic: made in due proportion, according to localities, seasons, and various kinds of crops, thus requiring an intelligent agriculturist in order to prevent, with the misuse of it, any injury to cultivation.

After this indispensable precaution pointed out, let us look at the extension of lands where salt can be required, only from the coast of the Chesapeake bay to Florida, and from cape Florida to Texas. All the Southern sea-boards are sandy pine lands, which, after yielding two or three crops, would be impoverished for ever, if not renewed by manures. In the same time, these lands, by the benefit of climate, are the most desirable for annual growth of tobacco, corn, and cotton, and call every year for an immense amount of fertilizers.

As to cotton, from the sea-shores to the mountain ranges, and from

the Atlantic States to those of the lower Mississippi and Mexican gulf, all low-lands are especially fit for its cultivation, and afford an unlimited field for multiplying this vegetable wool, to clothe with it, if necessary, the Old and the New World. This cotton-growing region of America—abstraction made of Virginia and a portion of North Carolina—embraces an area of about 600,000 square miles, or 384,000,000 of acres. But 5,000,000 only are in full cultivation, producing a crop of 3,000,000 of bales, equivalent to three bales for every five acres. Hence, the estimate that forty millions of acres being certainly producing lands, will be, sooner or later, capable of supplying twenty-five millions of cotton bales, or eight times the present crop. Such are the prospect and basis of the agricultural greatness of the New World.

Now, to this producing capability and future growth of cotton, we must apply the future extension of the manure, the best appropriated to this wonderful staple. We know it already. Cotton plant delights in sea-breezes, and grows finer in soil manured with salt-mud, or what is the same, and forty times cheaper, manured with the common salt alone as a concentrated fertilizer. As to the advantages of this application, there is no doubt among the Sea Island cotton planters; but it is still doubtful among them how much salt per acre is required. The quantity to be used ought to be regulated, generally, by the proximity of the plantation to the sea, and can be increased, methinks, at greater distance from the coast, where the supply of brine from the sea-breezes is to be replaced by that from the soil. Even near to the coast the plant seems to be very much benefited by two or three bushels per acre; but the quantity depends also on the more or less permeability of soil. A soil, where clay prevails over the sand, being more conservative of the brine, must receive less salt than a sandy land, through which this fertilizer, after dissolved, is in great part carried away by rains, and can be advantageously renewed every year.

As to the sandy lands, which are the most propitious for cotton, and constitute the greatest part of the region spoken of, according to the opinion of the Sea Island cotton planters, we estimate that two bushels of salt could be used, per acre, to the great profit of the crop. Then, for the present cotton cultivation of five millions of acres, we must supply ten millions bushels of salt; and for the twenty-five millions of acres to be in future time put in full production, the immense amount of fifty millions of bushels, or nearly double the actual consumption of the United States!

Such a supply, being only for manuring one special kind of crops, can give an idea of the general amount of common salt to be used in other agricultural pursuits: for instance, the value of farm-yard manures depends mainly on the amount of ammonia they contain; but we know this ammonia is an element highly volatile, which we must prevent from escaping. To fix it in the animal manures, the sulphuric acid, diluted in a proportion of one pint to eight gallons of cold water, and sprinkled from time to time, has been regarded, till now, as the most effectual agent. But this method is a little dangerous. The sulphuric acid, if not sprinkled carefully, will burn your fingers, feet,

or clothing; and, besides, it costs two and-a-half cents per pound. Then, instead of this oil of vitriol, take at the same price a half bushel of salt—easy to be transported anywhere—dilute it in water, and sprinkle the brine over your stable manures. The chlorhydric acid, derived from the chlorine of this brine, will produce an effect equivalent to that of the sulphuric acid; preventing the manures from fumes, it will keep their ammonia from escaping; whilst, on the other hand, the second element of salt, the sodium, brings there with itself a mineral alkali of an important manuring value. Thus, the common salt, as applied in the precedent case, becomes manufacturer of good manures, and deserves, in this new respect, the careful attention of American farmers.

A last and more striking example of the same influence is afforded by the mixture of common salt with other concentrated fertilizers like itself, with guano—for instance. By the great affinity of its chlorine with ammonia, we know already how it fixes this volatile alkali of the guano, and thereby making an ammoniac salt—a lasting and permanent manure, it multiplies its value, and gives to the soil a supply of food durable for a rotation of crops. On the other hand, the ammoniac salts must, according to Liebig, be accompanied by mineral constituents in order to be efficacious, “and the effect,” said he, “is then proportional to the supply, not of ammonia, but of mineral substances.” Consequently, the sodium, as mineral alkali, is one of the constituents required to accompany the fixed ammonia of guano, and secure it all its productiveness. As to other advantages of this mixture, and the proportion of common salt to put in, the *Agricultural Report of the Patent Office* for 1854, in speaking of the qualities and application of these fertilizers, says: “It would always be well to mix the guano, before applying it to a dry soil, with charcoal or common salt, on account of the power which they possess of attracting moisture in dry seasons from the atmosphere. A mixture of about *three parts of salt*, or charcoal, to one part of guano, has been attended with the most important results as regards the increase of crop.”

By the same statement we can look already at the immense amount of our salt to be used in the mixture of guano, of which the application is annually swelling into greater magnitude. *Hunt's Merchants Magazine* gives, in this respect, the following statistics:

“The important part which the guano trade is performing in the commerce of the world, and its influence upon shipping interests, is but imperfectly understood. Vessels carrying cargoes to our west Pacific coast, formerly were obliged to depend for return freights upon China and the East Indies alone. Now they are directed to the Chinchas, which furnish cargoes at high rates, for foreign and American vessels, to a very large extent.

“Nearly 400,000 tons of guano are required for Great Britain and Ireland, and 250,000 tons for the United States. Every sea is explored to obtain this valuable fertilizer.

“The aggregate value of the different varieties now in use in the markets of the world, cannot be less than \$140,000,000 per annum. To the Peruvian Government the revenue derived from her guano trade exceeds the amount from all her other sources of income—her mines of gold and silver, agriculture, etc.”

From the commercial and agricultural value of this fertilizer, and from the quantity of its consumption in the United States, we must now conclude the future use of our salt, destined to be, by its cheap-

ness, the inseparable and always preferred companion of the former. 250,000 tons, or 10,000,000 bushels of guano are yearly imported into the Union; and in order to make available the ammonia and other manuring qualities, a quantity of salt three times greater, according to the Patent Office Report, seems required. Then, in this above case, 750,000 tons, or 30,000,000 bushels of salt, more than the actual consumption of the United States, should be provided for by the new salt manufacture, and mixed with the guano, in the said proportion of 3 to 1, would produce 40,000,000 bushels of fertilizing elements. What amount of crops and productiveness for the farming interest!

The financial profits of such a mixture are worth also some consideration.

The guano spoken of, at one dollar per bushel, costs...	\$10,000,000
And the 30,000,000 of the new salt, at five cents per bushel, will cost.....	1,500,000

Thus representing as capital an expense of..... \$11,500,000 for making 40,000,000 bushels concentrated manure, perhaps equal to the value of \$40,000,000. Now take the balance of the expenses and profits, and you will have a clear income of \$28,500,000 to be divided among American planters. As to the selling price of the new salt, \$1,500,000, of course it will belong exclusively to the producers, and will contribute to the commercial wealth of the Southern States, as the salt itself to their agricultural greatness.

This example seems to illustrate some profits of the future salt business, when in full operation. In any case, the better avail of concentrated fertilizers, by the intelligent use of salt, will be one of the greatest progresses of agricultural economy.

(TO BE CONTINUED.)

THE NEW TERRITORY OF ARIZONA.

THE "Mesilla Valley," or "Gadsden purchase," as it is generally designated, includes a tract of country about 27,000 square miles in extent to the south of New Mexico, and separating it from the Mexican provinces of Sonora and Chihuahua. The Colorado constitutes its western boundary, and we trust that a port will be secured to us upon the Gulf of California. This region has been attracting settlers, and will present itself for territorial admission at the next session of Congress. The country is adapted to slavery, and hence an angry struggle may be expected. It abounds in valuable minerals. The following facts are taken from a late report made by Sylvester Mowry, Lieut. U. S. A.:

"Already Colorado City, opposite Fort Yuma, is a place of pecuniary value and importance, and its position at the only secure crossing of the river, at the junction of the Gila and Colorado, and at the present head of navigation on the latter river, make it certain that it will be a large town at no distant day.

The Territory of Arizona is not only capable of attracting emigration and settlement, but it is now being rapidly settled. Families, women and children, are already moving from California into the new purchase, and many fine claims are already located in the numerous valleys of the middle portion of the territory. Old ranches, long deserted by the Mexicans, who had neither strength nor spirit to resist Indian attacks, are being re-occupied, and will this year yield large and paying crops. Two steamers ply regularly on the Colorado River to Fort Yuma and Colorado City. Already an active and rapidly increasing trade exists between the towns of Tucson and Tubac, in Arizona, and San Francisco. In almost any issue of the San Francisco papers your readers may see vessels advertised for the mouth of the Colorado. The mining companies of the "Purchase" alone, last year, consumed more than one hundred thousand dollars worth of goods purchased in San Francisco, and this amount will be largely increased this year. Settlements will at once be made at every point where military protection is afforded, and this will necessarily be at the mail stations—and the country will richly repay the industrious emigrant—be he farmer or miner. The Mesilla valley already contains a respectable population, and there is no doubt but that the territory will contain at least 2,000 permanent residents, voters, by the opening of Congress."

It is also worthy of remark, that Arizona is in the direct route of the new overland mail to the Pacific, which is as follows: "Beginning both at St. Louis and Memphis, on the Mississippi river, thence forming a junction at Little Rock, in the State of Arkansas; thence in the direction of Preston, in Texas, to the Rio Grande, at the most suitable crossing of that river near Fort Fillmore on Dona Ana; thence along the new road now being made under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior, to Fort Yuma; thence by the best passes, and through the best valleys for safe and expeditious staging to San Francisco."

MINERAL RESOURCES, ETC., OF KENTUCKY.

WE have before us an account of an exploration made by two leading geologists of a portion of the State of Kentucky, covered by what is known as the "Great Illinois Coal Fields." That part of the field which is within Hopkins County is now in possession of a company known as "The Mastodon Coal and Iron Mining and Manufacturing Company," and lies along the line of the Henderson and Nashville Railroad. The twenty thousand acres of land, chiefly in Hopkins county, Kentucky, owned by the company, as well as the additional five thousand acres on which they have mining privileges, occupy the southern margin of this most extensive coal-field in the position the most accessible for working, the most advantageous for drainage, entirely safe for the miner, and in near proximity to an important market for its valuable materials.

The explorations referred to cover no less than six distinct coal beds within the region of the company's lands, and the mean aggregate thickness of the

workable coal of good quality, imbedded, is stated to be about 25 feet. The agricultural character of the soil is also represented as better than that to be found in mineral regions and portions situated in the valleys, afford large and excellent timber, such as beech, maple, white oak, hickory, ash, elm, walnut, coffee-tree, etc., and exhibit fine crops of tobacco, probably averaging 1,000 pounds to the acre; while the uplands are excellent second-rate farming land, capable of producing, under good management, 800 pounds of tobacco to the acre, admirably adapted for wheat, rye, oats, and grasses, and doubtless suited for stock generally, but particularly for sheep; while there is also a very fair growth of timber, particularly oak, hickory, dogwood, and, occasionally, especially in neglected fields, sumach.

Intersected by a railroad, great commercial resources would be opened to the company it is thought, and also many of a manufacturing character. Lumber, shingles, staves, hoops, &c., oak and chesnut bark for tanning, sumach, &c., would be abundantly yielded.

In regard to iron, the indications are favorable, though the examinations are not sufficient to establish certainly the character of the metal. There are, however, abundant indications of argillaceous carbonate of iron in nodules as well as of ochreous iron ores. On the subject of the importance of the coal trade and the particular advantages of this location, we copy from the report, as follows:

"In an average depth of 25 feet there would be due about 40,000 tons to each acre of the 20,000 acres included in the tract. The lowest price of coal at Nashville is \$4 50 per ton. Put it at \$2 50, or ten cents per bushel, and the product of one acre would be \$100,000, of which the profit would be \$50,000, the cost of working being but one cent per bushel, and the transportation to Nashville, eighty miles by railroad, 4 cents more. It has already been wagoned from the lands for 25 miles and sold at Hopkinsville for 15 cents per bushel.

"The demand for coal between Louisville and the Balize is variously estimated. Some who profess to have examined the markets with care, have stated it as high as seventy millions of bushels a year. 'It appears that coal, of which ten bushels are equal to a cord of cotton-wood, can be delivered on the lower Mississippi at thirteen cents a bushel, and yield a fair profit. This equals cotton-wood at \$1 30 a cord, or less than half its average price.' 'Fifteen dollars a cord for pine wood has been paid at New Orleans by Louisville boats. Five and six dollars a cord for inferior cotton-wood has been no unusual price, on the Mississippi.' 'This is certain, that the demand for coal will increase more rapidly than the supply. In 1845 the sales at the Cannelton and Hawesville mines amounted to only 213,000 bushels. Now, this quantity and more is required every month, when the river is navigable.' 'Long that skilful, thrifty boatman, Captain Sturgeon, could not be induced to use coal, except in his cabin. Now the Eclipse often leaves the Ohio with 10,000 bushels upon her decks, even to the displacement of freight.'

"But the steamboat and sugar-mill demand for the fuel of the lower Ohio will soon be inconsiderable when compared with its demand for manufacturing purposes. In a few years the men of energy and capital in the west will wonder at their own blindness in not appreciating and profitably developing the immense natural advantages afforded by the minerals, the fuels, the subsistence, and by the easy transit on the lower Ohio for the manufacture of their own great staples. They will then understand the perspicacity of that veteran manufacturer and statesman, Richard Cobden, of England, who years ago declared that the chief seat of the cotton manufacture must eventually be on the coal-fields of the central west, where heat, power, iron, subsistence, transit, and material could be brought together and combined cheaper than anywhere else in the known world."

The Hopkins lands embrace the entire extent of the coal-fields through which the Nashville and Henderson road will pass. They are forty miles from the Ohio river, and the company expect to have in five or six months 100 barges and 10 steam tugs for supplying with coal the lower Ohio and the Mississippi as far even as New Orleans. The stockholders are men of reputation and wealth.

CONSEQUENCES OF ABOLITION AGITATION.

BY EDMUND RUFFIN, OF VIRGINIA.

NO. IV.

WHAT EFFECT DISUNION WOULD HAVE UPON SOUTHERN SLAVE PROPERTY
IN PEACE OR IN WAR.

AMONG the evil consequences to the South of a separation from the North, it is supposed by most persons that the abolition action of the North would be thereby stimulated and increased, and the effects would render the preservation of our slaves and the existence of slavery much more precarious than while the relation of union, under one government, continues. There is no ground to expect an increase of this evil action, or of its effects, whether in the state of war or of peace, and good reasons for the reverse.

The main cause of the ability of the abolitionists to operate on our slaves, to infuse discontent, and to seduce them to abscond, or to rebel, is to be found in the existing relation which the hostile incendiary agents from the North bear to us, in being also our fellow-citizens. The worst enemies of the South, even regular and the most mischievous agents of organized associations for stealing slaves, and exciting insurrection and massacre, have now every facility to enter the country, and to sojourn wherever they can best operate. Any pretext of business is enough to serve to account for their presence; and there is no neighborhood in the Southern States into which Yankees have not penetrated, and could freely operate as abolition agents. Under the Federal Constitution, they are citizens of any Southern State in which they temporarily reside, and their conduct and proceedings cannot be questioned, so long as there is cautious concealment from white witnesses of any felonious or incendiary acts. Not only have these agents, as our fellow-citizens, the protection of the Constitution of the United States, but we, the people of Virginia, and of all the Southern States, afford to these most dangerous of incendiaries the far greater protection of our own laws, by forbidding the evidence of negroes to be heard against any white person. In these cases of incendiary attempts to seduce slaves, or to plot with them to excite insurrection and massacre, it is next to impossible that any other than negroes should have heard their communications, and be able to inform of their proceedings. Consequently, not one case in the hundred, of which negroes could and often would readily testify, is detected and punished. A still stronger reason for changing this policy is, that, with the existing impunity, the abolition agent knows that he may safely attempt to delude or seduce any negro, as no statement of the negro can convict him. Even if suspected, at the worst he has only to shift his residence to some other place where he is not known, and then to operate as before. If the Northern agent was subject by our laws to be tried and condemned for this offence on the evidence of negroes, (as he would be at

home for any other felony,) he would not venture to incur the great risk of communication. Thus nearly all such action would be prevented.

Thus protected by the Federal Constitution, and our own mistaken legal policy in regard to evidence, it is no wonder that abolition agents are numerous and efficient in the slave-holding States. They are numerous in the Southern cities, especially, where they may be safe even from suspicion in their various ostensible or real employments of traders, mechanics and laborers, or sailors. In every county they have probably entered, and many have remained to operate as pedlars and sellers of Northern commodities and patent rights, solicitors for subscriptions to Northern publications, beggars for societies of various moral and religious pretensions, teachers, both male and female, and even ministers (so esteemed) of the gospel of love and peace. Until within the last few years, and after numerous discoveries of such incendiary action and many convictions, (among them of two Northern preachers, and two at different times of the same Northern lady,) these agents had the most unrestrained access to all our country habitations and to our slaves.

There had previously been no suspicion entertained of such a system of villany. The primitive and general hospitality of our country served to admit every apparently decent stranger to our houses, as a welcome guest. And thus, as inmates, they had every facility afforded them for deceiving our slaves, and implanting discontent, as well as for aiding their escape, when any fit subjects were found. With such facilities for agents, and with the instigation, and aid of money of the Northern organized associations, and with the general spirit of the Northern people and their State governments to encourage such acts, and to screen the criminals, it is not surprising that these offences against the South have been every year increasing. The counties of Virginia bordering on Pennsylvania, Ohio, and even on the Potomac above Washington, have lost so many slaves, and their possession is so hazardous, that but few remain, and property in slaves is there of such uncertain tenure, as to be of but little value. The city of Norfolk, and its close vicinity, in one year, (preceding the late State law affording partial protection,) lost about one hundred slaves, of the most valuable description, all of which were doubtless forwarded by Northern agents, and taken off in Northern vessels. In and near Richmond, the losses have not been so numerous, but still very many. There, several agents have been convicted and punished.

But these pecuniary losses in slave property, and even the delusions and discontent produced in many more slaves than the actual fugitives, are as nothing compared to the other evils which abolition agents have the like facilities for encouraging and abetting, and which they are equally ready and zealous to bring about, in insurrections of the slaves, with all the horrible results of the attempts, however unsuccessful as they all must be, in reaching their great object, or indeed any considerable effect in general and political affairs. The continual efforts to excite mutiny and insurrection, even if failing to produce any open or

violent act, cause discontent and unhappiness, and a spirit of insubordination in the slaves, and much injury to their owners and to the commonwealth. If actual rebellion, or plotting to rebel, is attempted, it must always end in utter failure. And the worst and most deplorable consequences of such plots, or actual outbreaks, have been, and will be, (and the only spilling of blood, except in the single and peculiar case of the Southampton insurrection,) in the heavy punishments which have fallen upon the deluded victims of the abolitionists—while the far more criminal, and immediate instigators, have generally escaped—and their employers have remained safe in their Northern homes to continue pharisaically to thank God that they are free from the sin of slave-holding.

Even since the writing of these pieces was begun, there have been more cases of discovery of these iniquitous operations, and of more wide-spread extent, than has ever been known before—but not more than might have been expected from the ample means and facilities at command. Plots for simultaneous out-breaks or insurrections (which rumor said were to occur at Christmas) have been discovered at several remote points in Virginia, in Kentucky, Tennessee, and other Southern States. All, doubtless, were instigated by abolition agents, and induced by their delusive representations; and some of these instigators luckily have been secured, though others have escaped. Probably all these alleged plottings and their incidents have been much exaggerated, as usual, by false reports, and some of them may have had no existence. But there is enough certainly true to produce much uneasiness and extended panic among many of the whites, and to cause much suffering, both deserved or undeserved, by the implicated negroes. These are dreadful and most deplorable results of these abolition efforts, and the only results they can ever have, save one, which will be also the only good result. This is, that these numerous and far extended designs will be universally and truly inferred to have been instigated and forwarded by concerted abolition action, and to have been the result of, and connected with the recent sectional effort to elect an abolition President.* And the greater the immediate effects may be of this most recent incendiary instigation, the more will be the beneficial ultimate result, of inducing the Southern States to ward off, by the only effectual mode, all such future and effective operations of hostile Northern abolitionists.

The power of the abolition agents for mischief, and their security from detection and punishment, and all the evil consequences of their incendiary actions, are owing mainly to their privilege of citizens in the South. If the Southern and Northern States made two separate

* Before the election by the people had taken place it was known that slaves had been informed of the Northern motives of action, and had received the impression that the election of Fremont would cause the extinction of slavery. It is said that in the recent (designed) insurrection in Tennessee the poor wretches were deceived and encouraged by the belief, that they had only to fight their way to the north side of the Cumberland river, where Col. Fremont and his army would receive and protect them.

political communities, these agents would be deprived of all their present free access to our slaves, and of the facilities for their operations. Neither the agents nor their employers could find any substitutes for these facilities, in their new relation to us, of foreigners in peace, or enemies in war. It is true, that then, a fugitive slave who may pass the line of division will be safe from pursuit. But it is nearly so now—and the legal remedies, or means for recovering fugitive slaves within the Northern States, are null in fact, even when not expressly made so by State law, as is the case in Massachusetts. A mode of redress which cannot be obtained once in a hundred cases of wrong, and which, even when most effective, costs more than the value of the object sought, is clearly worthless. Therefore, the South would lose no more by the immediate and entire repeal of the present delusive "fugitive slave" law of Congress, and by the cessation of all future attempts to recover fugitive slaves from the North.

As a certain result of an independent dominion and government, the South would guard against such future action of emissaries by a strict examination of Northern immigrants, and a proper investigation of the objects and proceedings of those newly arrived and unknown. If incendiaries would be safe on the northern side of the line of division, on the southern they could be far more easily watched, detected, and by more stringent laws, speedily hung, as soon as found guilty. If the same disposition to interfere and agitate remained, (which would not be,) there would be much less opportunity left for it to be exercised. The new and severe policy of the South, in regard to incendiary actions, would at once restrain the action of the pious and gentle incendiaries, and greatly restrain the mercenary and boldest. If all such emissaries and agents were shut out from intercourse with our slaves, and deprived of their present facilities for deluding them, it would be very rare for any slave, without influence from abroad, to attempt, or desire, to escape permanently from his home and his condition of slavery. And the spirit of discontent which Northern abolitionists have produced by false representations, and the consequent spirit of insubordination—and the new and more stringent measures of discipline for repression of insubordination thus rendered necessary—all being the direct results of abolition action—are the only serious disadvantages, and sources of suffering, to the slaves, and the only thing to prevent their being the most comfortable, contented, and happy laboring class in the world.

The means for holding slave property, safely, would be so much increased by separation, and especially near the border lines, that the slave population of the border land would soon increase and extend, where it has been long decreasing, and, at this time, can scarcely exist, because of the inability of the proprietors to shut out the northern incendiaries.

So much for the supposed and expected relations of peace. But the great power of abolition action, and its greater, if not complete success, it is usually inferred, will be exhibited in the condition of war between the separated North and South. The consideration of this branch of the subject will be next considered.

If the Northern and Southern Confederacies were at war, and it were possible that the former could succeed in completely subjugating the latter, then, indeed, the conquered people would be at the mercy of the conquerors, who might abolish negro slavery, or do any thing else. But it is unnecessary to argue on the assumption of such impossible premises. In the very improbable event of any war occurring, the invasion of the Southern territory, if attempted, would not likely be successful—or allow more than transient occupation of a small extent of country. If admitting the North to be stronger power on its own territory, and still more on the water, all its power for invasion and offensive warfare, would be less than that of the South for repelling and punishing such aggressions on Southern ground. Under such circumstances, and with any thing like equal action, and balanced successes, the North would have much less chance for producing successful insurrection and enfranchisement of the slaves, than had the more powerful enemy in both our wars with Great Britain. In the war of the Revolution, at different times, the British forces were the masters over lower Virginia, and even extended their incursions to the middle country. They remained in possession of the neighborhood of their encampments for months together. In the farther South, the hostile occupation by the British forces was much more extensive, and continued for years. Encouragement was held out to the slaves, in offers of freedom and protection, to desert their masters and to rebel against and oppose them in arms. In the very commencement of the war in Virginia, the royal governor, Lord Dunmore—while still possessing all respect of the vulgar, and the authority of the representatives of the King, and esteemed as a King, and the only known supreme power in the minds of the ignorant slaves—in command of a regular military and naval force, raised together the royal standard, and the banner of negro insurrection—calling upon the slaves to side with the King, and to receive protection and freedom as the reward of their loyalty. Even this invitation, proceeding from the only known previous, and highest legal authority, and backed by the military power and the government of Britain, was a signal failure. Throughout the war of the Revolution, and in all the South, there was no such occurrence as even a partial insurrection of slaves, or of the negro deserters to the enemy being embodied for military service. There was no approach to nor the least apprehension of any danger of the abolition of slavery. That there were numerous losses sustained in the desertion or the stealing of slaves, is indeed true; as well as that our brave and patriotic fathers incurred numerous other and much greater losses, and risked the loss of everything, in their struggle for freedom and independence.

In the war of 1812, the many facilities for slaves to desert, or mutiny, and the attempts of the enemy to seduce them, were still less successful. At that time, many of the old negroes remembered, and all the younger had learned from the older, the inducements offered for desertion and rebellion of slaves in the Revolutionary war, and the treatment and various sufferings of many of the deceived victims, of whom many escaped from the British camps or ships, and returned to the masters they had been induced to desert. Probably it was owing to these recollec-

tions and traditions, that very few of the slaves of Virginia deserted or left their homes voluntarily, to go to the enemy during the last war, though British ships occupied permanently, portions of our waters during nearly all the time. Finally, finding that invitation and seduction had no effect, Admiral Cockburn and other officers of the British naval force resorted to compulsion. Then, on the borders of the Rapahannock, and other most accessible places, many slaves were taken by force from the farms, in marauding incursions of the enemy, and driven at the point of the bayonet to the boats of the British shipping. Thence, they were afterwards sent to Trinidad and elsewhere, and, as was reported, settled as slaves, or in bondage much worse than slavery in Virginia, on sugar plantations of the captors, or others. That the abduction of these slaves was effected by force, admits of no doubt. For, on that admitted ground, in the subsequent treaty of peace, the British government agreed to pay for these slaves, and the owners were so paid their full estimated value.

So much for the chances of voluntary desertion of our slaves to an enemy in arms, and of supposed superior force, and desiring and inviting such desertion. But even if counting this danger as nothing, it may still be feared that without the voluntary desertion of individual slaves, there might be produced by the encouragement of a neighboring abolitionist enemy in arms, a general spirit of insubordination, mutinous conduct, and results leading to revolt. The writer is old enough to have had some personal experience of the like causes, and the actual results from the beginning of, and through the war of 1812; and what he saw and heard then, bearing on this argument, may be new and of interest, and of weight as evidence to readers of the present day and generation.

In the beginning of 1813 British ships of war first occupied Hampton roads, and began the blockade of Chesapeake bay and of the rivers of the whole Atlantic coast south of New England, which blockade was strictly maintained to the end of the war in 1815. During all this time, all the rivers emptying into the Chesapeake, and also other accessible shores of the great bay were frequently visited by portions of the British marine force, and the bordering lands were subjected to the incursions and depredations of the enemy. Numerous and great depredations were committed in Virginia, including the forcible abduction of slaves mentioned above. There was no defensive force except hasty levies of the residents, acting as militia, and nearest to the places invaded or deemed in most danger of attack. And all the men of the tide water counties, then, (before the introduction of steam vessels, and of railroads, and of the electric telegraph,) would have been a very insufficient defence against an enemy having possession of and command on the water, and therefore able to change the points of attack, or feints of attack, in a few hours, to other points far removed from the previously assembled force, summoned for hasty defence, and this for many hundreds of miles length of the exposed river and bay shores. Along all these shores were the richest farms and the most dense slave population in Virginia; and wherever the British landed they were complete masters for the time, and usually the only white occupants of the place.

Therefore, they had every opportunity and means to operate on the slaves, by deception and seduction. Yet, only by force did they carry off any slaves—and in no manner or place did they induce any act or produce any indication of insubordination, then or thereafter.

In the tide water county of my then residence, the entire body of the militia was called out, in mass, on several different occasions of alarm, because of movements and expected incursions of part of the enemy's force. Each of these general and hasty unexpected calls for immediate service lasted for but a few days, except once, in 1814, when the service was continued for some weeks. During that time, the British vessels were much higher than usual in the river, and every man of military age in the county, and the overseers as well as the proprietors of the slaves, were encamped at one point, where the enemy was expected. Further, the most important operation and heaviest labor of our region, the wheat and oat harvest, was commenced and completed during this time that almost every farmer was from home, and unable to give the slightest attention to his farm, or to procure any fit substitute for the proprietor. Yet, not a single case of insubordination among the slaves was heard of, nor had there been any apprehension thereof. Our wives and children, and all our moveables, were left at home, surrounded by and all in the power of the slaves, and all in perfect security. In the actual absence of all superintendence on the farms, no doubt the harvest and other labors were performed more slowly and carelessly, than under different and ordinary circumstances. But I did not find in my own case, nor hear from others, of any important and serious loss on this score. Suppose that the entire male population, of military age, in a county of our non-slaveholding country, had been thus and so long removed from their farms and employments—or even all except the hiring farm laborers—would not the losses and evils have been very far greater?

The like general circumstances as here stated, to greater or less extent, attended every tide water county in Virginia and Maryland, and also every accessible river in the more southern Atlantic States. And every resident now living who then had reached the military age, can confirm the general facts, and especially what is here asserted of the obedience and good conduct of the slaves and their almost universal resistance to all attempts to delude them by offers of freedom and promises of gain and benefit. An invading force from the Northern States, whether coming by land or by water, will not be like to have as free communications with slaves, or as great facilities to remove them, whether by fraud or by force, as had the British liberators, and will scarcely meet with more success.

Judging of the whole southern Atlantic States in these respects by the known experience of eastern Virginia, it seems probable that all the slaves induced to desert or to go off voluntarily, in all these States and throughout all the war, did not amount to as many as in late years our Northern fellow-citizens have seduced and stolen within a single month.

(TO BE CONCLUDED NEXT MONTH.)

NEW ORLEANS AND GREAT NORTHERN RAILROAD.

From the last annual report of this company, we introduce some condensed statistics showing the importance of the road and its numerous connections, together with its earnings in the last two years.

It will be seen that the freight and passengers earnings for 1855 were \$123,305 34, and for 1856 \$177,639 99, making a difference in favor of last year of \$54,334 65, or about forty-four per cent. This increase, all things considered, is satisfactory, for although much work has been done on the road within the past year in the shape of graduation, masonry, and bridging, but little has been added to the track. Yet these earnings are insignificant if contrasted with what they will be when the road shall be entirely completed between New Orleans and Canton. The following is an estimate, made up last year, but it is probable that its figures will fall far short of the reality:

Estimated receipts of the New Orleans, Jackson, and Great Northern Railroad when finished to Canton, and before the Mississippi Central Railroad is completed.

100,000 passengers at \$8 each.....	\$800,000 00
United States mail service.....	41,200 00
50,000 bales of cotton from Jackson, and north of Jackson, at \$2 per bale.....	100,000 00
Way and miscellaneous traffic.....	100,000 00
Up freight of merchandise and supplies.....	150,000 00
	<hr/>
	\$1,191,200 00
Deduct 50 per cent. for expenses.....	595,600 00
	<hr/>
Net annual receipts.....	\$595,600 00

The same, after the Central Railroad is finished.

200,000 passengers at \$8 each.....	\$1,600,000 00
United States mail service.....	41,200 00
100,000 bales of cotton, north of Jackson, \$2 per bale.....	200,000 00
Way and miscellaneous traffic.....	200,000 00
Up freight of merchandise.....	300,000 00
	<hr/>
	\$2,341,200 00
Deduct 50 per cent. for expenses.....	1,170,600 00
	<hr/>
Net annual receipts.....	\$1,170,600 00

The various railroads with which the Great Northern will connect, are most accurately and clearly described by his Excellency, the Governor of the State, in his recent annual message to your honorable body.

Many of these roads are finished, and every one of those not yet completed is making satisfactory progress in the work of construction.

Few are aware of the very little yet remaining to be done to connect New Orleans by railroad with every part of the Union, east of the Mississippi. It can scarcely be doubted that in 1859, the traveller will be enabled to go by rail from New Orleans to the remotest part of the country. The Mississippi Central Railroad, with which this connects at Canton, runs in a northerly direction to Lagrange, Tenn., a distance of 188 miles, where it intersects the Memphis and Charleston railroad. It will be finished in 1858. The Mississippi and Tennessee Central Railroad connects with the Mississippi Central at Lagrange, and runs in a northerly direction to Jackson, Tenn., a distance of 45 miles, there tapping the Mobile and Ohio railroad. It will be finished within a few months. That part of the Mobile and Ohio railroad between Jackson, Tenn., and Columbus, Ky., on the Mississippi river, 16 miles south of Cairo, at the mouth of the Ohio river, will be finished by November of the present year. A line of steamboats on the sixteen miles between Columbus and Cairo, to be run by the Illinois Central Railroad Company, will connect the Illinois Central and the Mobile and Ohio railroads, until the 16 miles of railroad between those two points shall be completed. The distance from Jackson, Tenn., to Cairo is 126 miles, and the total distance from New Orleans to Cairo is 565 miles. The time required to run through will be 23 hours. The time by steamboats is from five to eight days.

The Memphis and Charleston railroad will be completed in a few months. (Now completed.) It runs from Memphis to Stevenson, on the Nashville and Chattanooga railroad. By this road and those running from its eastern terminus in a northeasterly direction, all completed except the "East Tennessee and Virginia," and the "Orange and Alexandria" railroads, (and they will be finished in 1858,) we have a direct route, entirely by railroad, from New Orleans to New York, 1,318 miles in length, which may be run over at moderate speed, in 53 hours.

GROWTH OF GALVESTON, TEXAS.

THE receipts of Cotton at this port, during the last ten years, show as follows, as given in the "Civilian:—"

Bales.		Bales.	
Year ending Aug. 31, 1848....	39,774	Year ending Aug. 31, 1853....	85,790
" " 1849....	33,827	" " 1854....	110,325
" " 1850....	31,405	" " 1855....	80,737
" " 1851....	45,900	" " 1856....	116,078
" " 1852....	62,433	" " 1857....	89,891

The value of the Cotton exported from this port during the year is, according to the Custom-house appraisement, \$3,600,000. The value of that exported last year, according to the same authority, was \$2,979,834.

The following have been the receipts of Cotton and the sources of supply for the last two years:

FROM	Last year.	This year.
Houston and Harrisburg.....	63,162	58,182 bales.
Galveston Bay.....	954	1,659 "
Matagorda Bay.....	2,027	539 "
Trinity.....	20,366	6,724 "
Sabine.....	1,138	1,380 "
Brazos.....	2,651	2,996 "
Total.....	90,298	71,390 "

The receipts of Texas Sugar and Molasses, at this port, for the calendar years named below, were as follows:

		Molasses, barrels.	Sugar, hhd.
Year ending December 31, 1850.....		2,427	2,782
" " 1851.....		1,909	1,036
" " 1852.....		2,576	1,329
" " 1853.....		6,086	4,076
" " 1854.....		5,398	4,754
" " 1855.....		6,728	4,731
" August 31, 1855.....		5,375
" " 1856.....		7,570
" " 1857.....		124

HIDES.—The receipts at this port exceed 34,000 in number, and their value, in this market, is about \$100,000.

BEEVES.—The number cleared for New Orleans, through this port, has been 4,189; but the real number which has passed through this bay is about 6,000. Their value here is equal to \$20 each.

WOOL.—The receipts of the season are 423 bales.

LUMBER.—The receipts of the year have been 5,012,000 feet, worth \$100,000 in this market. Of shingles, the receipts have been 3,743,500.

PECANS.—The export has been short, in consequence of the unfavorable season last year. Our tables show shipments of 4,643 packages, or 696,300 lbs., valued at 8 cents per pound in the market, and giving as the value of the export of this article \$58,804.

SKINS AND PELTRIES, to the amount of 242 bales, have been exported.

The value of foreign goods imported directly into this port is only \$152,242, while the value of the exports to foreign ports has been \$1,228,615—or nine times as great as our imports. The value of exports coastwise, according to the Custom-house returns, is \$2,997,889, making the total value of commodities cleared here within the year, \$4,226,504.

Imports of provisions have been as follows:

Flour, 28,657 barrels, average value.....	\$8 50	\$233,684
Corn, bushels, 132,595.....	1 00	132,595
Bacon, casks, 533.....	120 00	63,560
Hams, tierces, 901.....	40 00	36,040
Oats, bushels, 18,092.....	90	16,374
Hay, bales, 13,766.....	6 00	82,596

COURSE OF EDUCATION IN VIRGINIA.

AN Educational Convention lately met at Richmond, Virginia, where a report of much value was submitted upon the educatiodal system of Virginia, drawn up by Dr. Junkin, as Chairman of a special committee. We extract from the report :

The amount of this tax, of course, varies with the population.

The capitation tax amounts annually to..... \$120,000 00

The old fund..... 122,744 01

Total..... \$242,744 01

ITS DISTRIBUTION.

To primary schools and free schools..... \$120,000

To do. do. for poor children 88,000

To the University of Virginia..... 15,000

To the Virginia Military Insitute..... 1,500

Total..... \$216,500

Its disbursement takes place according to law, through the Second Auditor, at the order of the Board of the Literary Fund, drawing on the Treasurer of the State, in favor of the Superintendent of Schools for each county, for the University and the Military Institute. The application of this money in the county schools is exclusively to the poor children, except where the free school system, as described in the code of Virginia, is adopted, and except where there is a surplus beyond the necessities of the poor children ; then the County Board may transfer said surplus to any incorporated college or academy in the county. The committee was not aware to what extent such transfers may have been made, but presume they do not frequently occur.

As to the results, or the amount of benefit, this the committee regarded as a broad subject and not a little delicate, so far as relates to the \$15,000 and the \$1,500 annuities.

The committee referred to the great difficulty of estimating the amount of benefit to the State and the nation from the impulse given to the general cause of education by the literary and scientific labors of the University. Who, said the committee, will undertake to estimate the benefit to mankind of a single thoroughly educated literary man ? And how, then, could the committee weigh the mountains in scales and the hills in a balance ? No educated man believes that the University of Virginia has committed no blunders, or that it is anything like what it ought to be and we trust will be. And yet no man of literary standing doubts its high utility and its vast influence for good upon the colleges and academies and schools. If ever the lower strata of our population shall be lighted and warmed into that higher civilization which alone can make universal suffrage safe and permanent, it must be by light and heat from above.

As to the benefit from the fifteen hundred dollars annuity to the Virginia Military Institute, we cannot say so much. The Institute is a

scientific, not a literary school; the *artes literati* it professes not to teach. It is what in Europe is known as a "Beale school." Such schools within their own spheres are highly beneficial, but as the instrumental agents of a large and universal mental and moral development, they have few if any advocates among the great educators of the world.

The benefits realized from the main disbursement of the literary fund are very problematical. It is clear that the fund is the property of the people of Virginia. We, therefore, meet at once a moral question. Is it right to take the property of many and to bestow it exclusively on the few? It should be kept in mind that but a few counties adopted the free school system—so few that we shall throw them out of the calculation altogether and look in the face the broad fact that \$80,000 out of \$242,744 are distributed for the benefit of the poor children. They are the privileged class—the aristocracy of poverty. Now, is it right to exclude from all the benefits of the literary fund all the children of this glorious old Commonwealth, except those who put in the plea of rags and dirt? The committee would leave the convention to answer that question.

The committee, in order to show the little benefits which accrued to the poor children of the Commonwealth from this partiality in the distribution of the literary fund, entered into a statistical account of the proportion of poor children educated under this system.

The census of 1840 is the first that gives the number of whites, over twenty years of age, that cannot read and write. The number was then fifty-eight thousand seven hundred and thirty-two. In 1850 it was seventy-three thousand five hundred and sixty-six. The whole white population in 1840 was seven hundred and forty thousand nine hundred and sixty-eight. In 1850 it was eight hundred and ninety-four thousand eight hundred. There have been, during the ten years, an absolute increase of fourteen thousand eight hundred and thirty-four, or fifteen hundred per annum of non-readers, and a relative diminution of almost nothing, it being but forty-seven hundredths of one per cent. But this relative diminution, when itself brought into comparison with the general and constant rising of the spirit of education, proves the utter failure of the pauper system to cure the evil.

SOUTHERN EPISCOPAL UNIVERSITY.

A pamphlet on this subject has been published by Rev. Henry C. Lay, Secretary of the Board of Trustees, and although it has not reached us, we are yet in possession of some of its particulars. The University is to be under the perpetual direction of the Protestant Episcopal Church, and shall be put into operation when \$500,000 are subscribed. This fund shall be considered entirely as capital to be placed at interest or otherwise invested. We present a part of the declaration of principles, which is signed by James H. Otey, Bishop of

Tennessee; Leonidas Polk, Bishop of Louisiana; Stephen Elliott, Bishop of Georgia; N. H. Cobbs, Bishop of Alabama; W. M. Green, Bishop of Mississippi; Francis H. Rutledge, Bishop of Florida; Thomas F. Davis, Bishop of South Carolina; David Pise, Francis B. Fogg, John Armfield, of Tennessee; W. Leacock, George S. Guion, of Louisiana; Henry C. Lay, Charles T. Pollard, L. H. Anderson, of Alabama; W. W. Lord, of Mississippi; Alexander Gregg, of South Carolina; M. A. Curtis, W. D. Warren, of North Carolina; J. Wood Dunn, of Texas.

2. The board of trustees shall be composed of the bishops of the dioceses above named, *ex officio*, and one clergyman and two laymen from each of said dioceses, to be elected by the convention of the same. The joint consent of the bishops as an order, and one of the clerical and lay trustees as another order, shall be necessary to the adoption of any measure proposed. The senior bishop, by consecration, shall always be President of the Board.

7. The amount subscribed in any diocese, as above, shall, in the event of the dissolution of the corporation, be returned to the donors or their legal representatives; and in case of there being no legal representatives, then it shall revert to the diocese.

8. The location of this University shall be as central to all the contracting dioceses, as shall be consistent with the necessary conditions of location.

Signed at the Lookout Mountain, near Chattanooga, Tennessee, the sixth day of July, A. D., 1857.

EDITORIAL—BOOK NOTICES.

Common Salt—Its Geology, History, Manufacture, and Use, from the time of Moses to the present, with practical applications and illustrations, engravings, statistical tables, showing its relations to agriculture and the arts, etc.

Such is the title of a work proposed to be published at an early day by Professor R. Thomassy, of which several chapters, by the courtesy of the author, have been furnished for publication in the Review. It was originally written in French, but at our instance is now undergoing transformation into intelligible English, and will be first published in the United States, at a very moderate price.

Mr. Thomassy has been for several years a resident among us, and exhibits some specimens of American salt, made by him from sea-brine, after three weeks only of solar evaporation. By a method of his own invention he succeeded regularly at his Italian works, on the Adriatic, in obtaining large quantities of salt two months after the completion of his evaporating fields. Such a method introduced largely into our country would produce a great industrial revolution, and free us from foreign dependence for an article scarcely less important than gunpowder. As author, founder, and engineer of salt-works, a large part of his life has been spent

among the swamp lands of the seaboard, near the mouths of rivers, or in the midst of lagoons, undergoing a process of removal or formation, like those of the Mississippi. Thus, in 1844 and '45, he spent several months in supervising the establishment of some of the largest salt works of Europe, created on a surface of 1,500 acres, in the lagoons of Venice, and he studied not far from there the gigantic works which the Senate of Venice had ordered to remedy the filling of the natural channels with sand, and prevent the unhealthiness of the swamps on the Adriatic. He then visited the maritime salt-works of Austria, and the owners and presidents of the salt-works of Pirans, in Istria, desirous of employing him for the general reform of their establishments, proposed to him an arrangement written and signed by them to that effect. Subsequently he explored the mineral wealth of Tuscany, and published a report, addressed to the Grand Duke of Tuscany, on the portion of his exploration relative to the advantages to be derived from the employment of salt from the sea, instead of the ordinary salt consumed in the Grand Duchy. In 1847-'48-'49 and '50, the same gentleman explored the swamps of the Island of Corsica, then the lagoons at the mouth of the Po, the filling up with sand of the celebrated port of Ravenna, where rice is now cultivated on the very spot formerly occupied by the fleets of the ancient Romans. Not far from these historical swamps, he founded at Cervia a model salt-work of an entirely new and superior kind, as his method of evaporation enabled him to commence the gathering in of salt in less than seven weeks of preparation.

The city Council of Savannah lately united in a strong recommendation of the enterprise of Mr. Thomassy to the attention of the people and Legislature of Georgia as one deserving of wide encouragement, and calculated greatly to enlarge their resources. The Governor of that State also leased to him a portion of the public domain adapted to the purposes of his salt-works. With this good beginning we wish him ample success, and unite with a number of the leading journals of the South in a hearty recommendation of Mr. Thomassy to the consideration of our enterprising citizens, having every confidence in his

character and capacities, his experience and skill. We invoke for him not only private, but public encouragement.

Brazil and the Brazilians, portrayed in historical and descriptive sketches, by Rev. D. P. Kidder, D. D., and Rev. J. C. Fletcher; illustrated with one hundred and fifty engravings, wood cuts, maps, etc.; Philadelphia, Childs & Peterson. 1857. This is by far the most elaborate work which has appeared upon Brazil from the American press. The writers have consulted every important work in the French, German, English, or Portuguese language, and for other information have quoted directly from official papers. Their experience in the Brazilian empire embraces the term of a twenty years residence, and it is their purpose, faithfully to portray the history of the country, and by a narrative of incidents connected with travel and residence in this land of the Southern Cross, to make known the manners, customs, and advancement of the most progressive people south of the equator. The work will afford the material for a most interesting article which will appear hereafter in the Review.

Modern Reform Examined, or, the Union of the North and South on the subject of slavery, by the Rev. Joseph C. Stiles; Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1857. The spirit and temper of this work are truly admirable, and it is calculated as much, if not more than any other of the present day, to inculcate liberal and kindly sentiments between the several members of the Federal Union. The modern reformers, (Abolitionists, Free-soilers, etc.,) are handled with much ability and truly christian spirit. There are things in the work which of course as a Southern man, and with the views we entertain are distasteful, but, upon the whole, its mission must be good, and it would be unjust to make an exception. At another time the work will be again referred to.

Preliminary Report on the Geology and Agriculture of Mississippi, by L. Harper, LL. D., State Geologist; Jackson E. Barksdale, State Printer. 1857.

Some time ago, we noticed and made extracts from a similar volume prepared by Mr. Wailes. Intending that course with the volume before us, which time and space do not now admit, nothing more than the above announcement is necessary. The work is handsomely printed and illustrated, and is in every respect a credit to the State from which it emanates.

The Princess of Viarna, or the Spanish Inquisition in the Reign of the Emperor Charles V.; New York, Putney & Russell. 1857. The object of the work, under the form of a romance, is to show the tyrannies and iniquities of Ecclesiastical supremacy as it exhibited itself in the middle ages. The moral which is drawn is intended for the present day, and in aid of the intolerant spirit it has in many quarters engendered. The work possesses much interest.

The Romance of the Revolution: being a history of the personal adventures, romantic incidents, and exploits, incidental to the war of Independence; illustrated; New York, Putney & Russell. 1857. This little volume is full of the most interesting reminiscences of the Revolution, narrated in spirited and pleasing style. All the worthies, male and female, of that epoch appear. The stories of Hayne, of Jasper, Marion, etc., are graphically related.

A Treatise on Health—Its Aids and Hindrances—containing an exposition on the causes and cure of diseases, and the laws of life, by Samuel S. Fitch, M. D., author of *Lectures on Consumption*, and author of *A System of Practice for the cure of Phthisis*; New York, Putney & Russell. 1857.

This is a large and elaborate volume. It starts upon the principle that pulmonary consumption is curable by medical treatment, which, if true, Heaven knows would gladden the hearts of hundreds and thousands in every country. The author says, "it is from a sense of duty as well to those who are falling victims to this terrible scourge, as to the medical profession and the community at large, that he has prepared the volume in which are more fully unfolded his views of the causes and nature of phthisis, and the system of reme-

dial measures which may be made effectual in curing it.

Records of the Revolutionary War: New York, Putney & Russell. This work is now in press, and we are furnished with the prospectus by the publishers. It will be one of the most interesting and valuable works of the age, and will recommend itself to many thousand families throughout the Republic for its record of the names and services of their ancestors. It will contain the military and financial correspondence of some fifty Generals and other commanding officers, and also the names of officers and privates of a great number of regiments, Northern and Southern, including Marion's men; also, the general and brigade orders of Generals Washington, Lee, Greene, Weedon, and others, in 1776, '77, and '78, showing the last trials at Valley Forge, breaking up of the encampment, order of march through Philadelphia, and the plan of attack on the British, at Monmouth. Also, an account of the capture of Fort Washington, and the horrors of the prisons and prison-ships of the British, in New York, with a list of American officers imprisoned, the time of their capture, release, &c. An account of the Society of the Cincinnati, in New York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, a list of the members' names, &c.; the half-pay, commutation, and land acts of the Continental Congress. A complete list of all the officers that served to the end of the war, and acquired the right to half-pay for life, commutation, and land. Proceedings of 34th Congress, and the United States Court of Claims, relative to a restoration of the half-pay acts of the old Congress, for the benefit of the heirs of officers of the Revolution; Virginia half-pay and land laws; the reasons which led to the passage of the Act of July 5, 1832, by Congress; the names of the Virginia officers who received land, with an interesting account of the military land districts of Ohio, Kentucky, and Tennessee, the locations of warrants, surveys, etc. Revolutionary Pension Laws of the United States as they now exist, with commentaries thereon. Notes on the services of various classes of Revolutionary officers, with an extensive list, showing the time they died, &c., &c., &c. One large 12mo. volume, of 600 pages.—Price \$1 50.